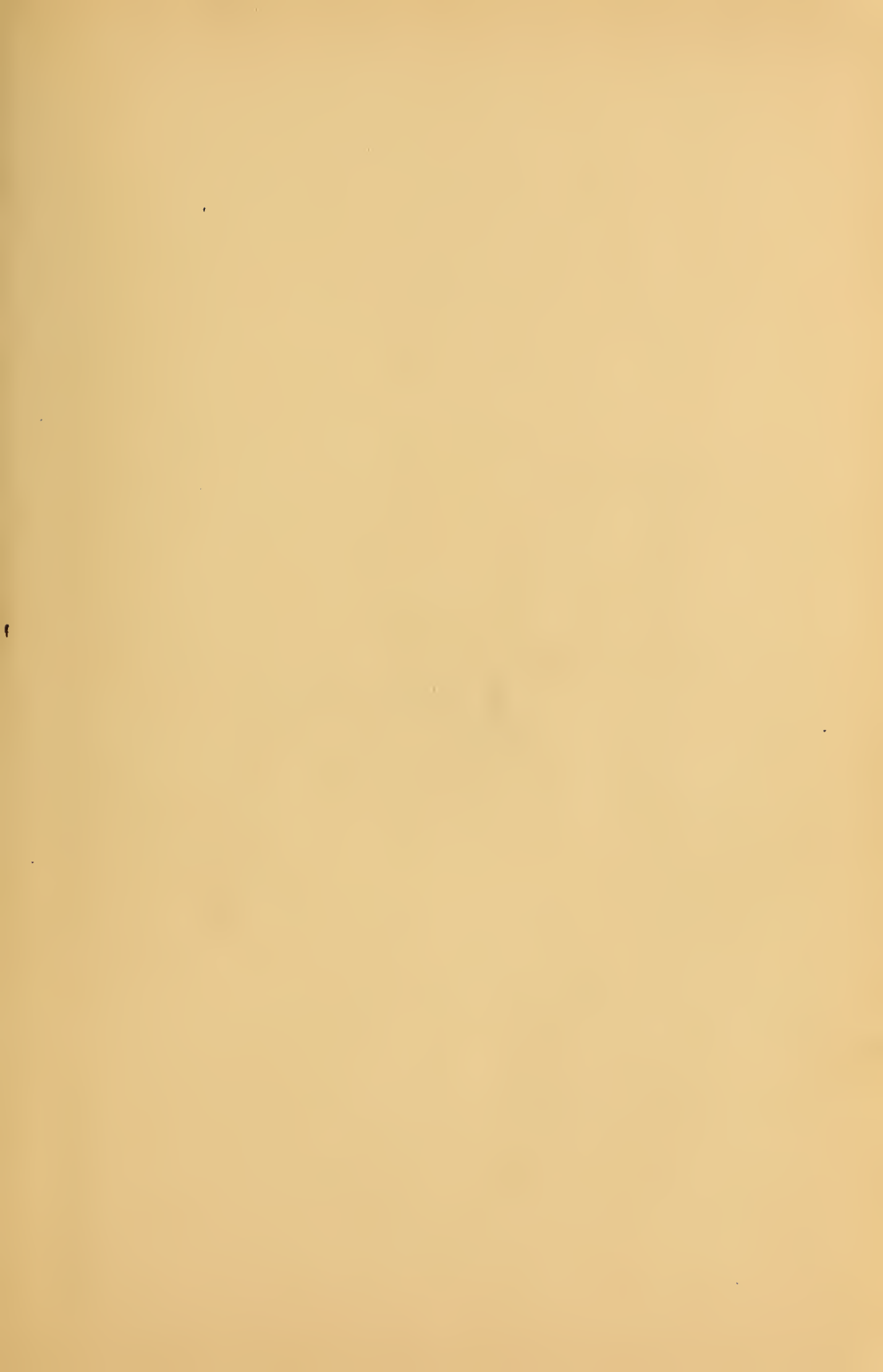




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BY WILLIAM ESTABROOK CHANCELLOR

OUR SCHOOLS

THEIR ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

448 PAGES

PRICE \$1.50

OUR CITY SCHOOLS

THEIR DIRECTION AND MANAGEMENT

335 PAGES

PRICE \$1.25

D. C. HEATH & CO., PUBLISHERS

OUR SCHOOLS THEIR ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

BY

WILLIAM ESTABROOK CHANCELLOR

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"Perhaps nothing in the history of the world has ever been supported by a consensus of belief more universal than that which sustains education to-day. It has almost attained the *semper, ubique, et ab omnibus* which the early Church strove for in vain. The world goes to school."

— G. STANLEY HALL.

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To

Charles Franklin Thwing

*A witness of the light that shineth ever more and more
unto the perfect day*

*"But to the spirit select there is no choice ;
 He cannot say, This will I do, or that,
 For the cheap means putting Heaven's ends in pawn,
 And bartering his bleak rocks, the freehold stern
 Of destiny's first-born, for smoother fields
 That yield no crop of self-denying will ;
 A hand is stretched to him from out the dark,
 Which grasping without question, he is led
 Where there is work that he must do for God.*

* * * * *

*Chances have laws as fixed as planets have,
 And disappointment's dry and bitter root,
 Envy's harsh berries, and the choking pool
 Of the world's scorn, are the right mother-milk
 To the tough hearts that pioneer their kind,
 And break a pathway to those unknown realms
 That in the earth's broad shadow lie enthralled ;
 Endurance is the crowning quality,
 And patience all the passion of great hearts ;
 These are their stay, and when the leaden world
 Sets its hard face against their fateful thought,
 And brute strength like a scornful conqueror,
 Clangs his huge mace down in the other scale,
 The inspired soul but flings his patience in,
 And slowly that outweighs the ponderous globe, —
 One faith against a whole earth's unbelief,
 One soul against the flesh of all mankind."*

— "COLUMBUS": JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.

PREFACE

WITH the growth of our schools in size and in number and with their development in resources and in methods, their organization tends constantly to grow more complex. Recently there has been differentiated from the teachers a class of school directors, administrators, and supervisors, whose function is management rather than instruction. These school managers see the schools from a point of view different from that of the instructors. So recent has been their appearance in the world of education that not only the general public, but even many instructors, do not yet understand the nature and value of their work. To present the subject of American education from the new point of view of the administrator and supervisor is the purpose of this book.

In this treatment of school management, the subject is defined, not as the instruction and control of individual pupils and of classes and grades of pupils, but as the organization, maintenance, administration, direction, and supervision of schools, and the planning of schoolhouses. The book is designed for all persons interested in the control of schools and of school systems, including superintendents, principals, supervisors, proprietors, members of boards of education, trustees, legislators, parents, taxpayers, and teachers or students preparing for the duties of school administration. Drawn upon these broad lines, the work is meant to promote teaching as a profession and to extend the knowledge of the principles upon which the professional movement is proceeding. The treatment concerns the

smaller schools and school systems rather than the school affairs of the few great cities. The future of the educational development of our people depends upon the development of the schools of villages, towns, and small cities whose total school population is, and let us hope always will be, far larger than that of the great cities. The superintendents, supervisors, principals, and board members of the great cities are so few in proportion to the population that the smaller communities may be said to include ninety-nine out of every hundred of school officers. The great cities are under the direction of relatively few such officers. Many a school principal in New York or Chicago controls a school attendance equal to that of several towns combined. This volume is intended to be a thorough presentation of the subject of school administration with reference to the smaller communities, while it is meant to be merely suggestive to those few experts who, usually after a successful experience in smaller systems, have been chosen to guide the policies of school administration in metropolitan communities.

The book has been prepared for the school and for the private library, for teachers' reading circles, and as a text for class use in colleges and normal schools. Without presenting the ideal, it is meant to present standards by which the schools of a community may fairly be judged. The various matters set forth in the Appendix are meant to be suggestive and helpful, rather than prescriptive.

Upon so many different subjects, no one man should try to present an authoritative opinion. The various chapters have been read in manuscript by gentlemen whose reputations are familiar to the educational profession. The book has also been read critically in proof, and I have freely availed myself of the criticisms and suggestions offered. In such a list as that which follows, an author hesitates to speak particularly of the assistance of individuals; yet justice seems to require it, for in this instance the author was very doubtful of the course to pursue in dealing with the encyclopedia of so vast a subject, and needed

encouragement and help to persist in an enterprise heavier than might be inferred from the size of the volume.

In planning this work upon "Our Schools, their Administration and Supervision," I was greatly assisted by Dr. Leonard and Dr. Poland. For inspiration to undertake and encouragement to pursue the task, I am indebted to the generous enthusiasm of Dr. Thwing, author of "College Administration." To Mr. Lang I owe especial acknowledgment for profitable counsel upon many occasions; and to Dr. Spaulding I owe constant help. To these gentlemen and to all the others who have so freely given to me their best counsel, leaving to me many a delightful memory of conferences and many a treasured letter of correspondence, I shall owe, in large measure, whatever success this book in a new field may meet. The names of these educators follow:—

Mr. J. D. Allen, Principal, De Lancey School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Dr. Thomas M. Balliet, Dean, New York University, New York.

Hon. Charles J. Baxter, Superintendent, New Jersey.

Mr. James R. Campbell, Headmaster, Kingsley School, Essex Fells, N. J.

Mr. Frank B. Cooper, Superintendent, Seattle, Wash.

Mr. Vernon L. Davey, Superintendent, East Orange, N. J.

Mr. Edward H. Dutcher, Principal, Eastern District School, East Orange, N. J.

Dr. Samuel T. Dutton, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Mr. Benjamin C. Gregory, Superintendent, Chelsea, Mass.

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Dr. William T. Harris, formerly United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

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Dr. Frank E. Spaulding, Superintendent, Newton, Mass.
Mr. Randall Spaulding, Superintendent, Montclair, N.J.
Dr. George W. Twitmyer, Superintendent, Wilmington, Del.

Every chapter of this volume has appeared (especially copyrighted) in one or more of the following publications, namely:—

- (6) *The School Journal*, New York.
- (2) *Educational Foundations*, New York.
- (1) *Teachers' Federation Bulletin*, Chicago.
- (1) *Journal of Pedagogy*, Syracuse.
- (2) *Education*, Boston.
- (1) *Intelligence*, Chicago.
- (1) *American Education*, Albany.
- (1) *School Board Journal*, Milwaukee.
- (1) *Daily Eagle*, Brooklyn.
- (1) *Daily Advertiser*, Newark.

The chapters were, however, not prepared for such serial publication, but as component parts of this work.

One who writes of his own profession may be permitted a personal remark. This work is not autobiographic. I have used many illustrations, of which perhaps a tenth were drawn from my own professional experience. Most of them have come to me in conversation with others. A few were stored in memory when reading educational periodicals. I have used no illustration that I do not believe founded on fact; but to avoid the identification of incidents, in several instances I have modified immaterial features of the story.

The omission of certain topics that might properly be treated under this title may be explained by the fact that, in case this work proves acceptable and useful to the profession, I hope to prepare, at some time in the future, a work with the title, *Our Schools: Their Courses of Study and Methods*. In that work, such topics may be considered as: text-books, subjects, programs, order of topics, elimination, combination, unification, and addition of courses, constants, electives, education of

teachers, working power of children and youth, methods in the various subjects, requirements of civilized society (desirable and undesirable), selection of teachers, childhood and early adolescence, equipment of schools, architectural notes. The present work discusses what seems to me the fundamental matter. It may not be fundamental in sound philosophy, but it certainly is fundamental in practical American educational polity.

If this text seems to avoid the unpleasant facts, — the crimes against childhood and against society itself, perpetrated in the name of education by dogmatic, unsympathetic, and incompetent school superintendents, principals, and teachers, and by board members unwilling to take or unable to understand professional advice, the corruption, the sordidness, the stolidity, the traditionalism, so often in evidence, — the avoidance has been intentional. I plead not ignorance, but the healthfulness of optimism. To all the discerning, a sad feature of this unpleasantness is the sense of being without honor as a teacher that attaches to so many men and women. The young lady prides herself upon the fact that during the summer vacation “no one dreamed that she was a teacher!” The young man says that he is “teaching to get money,” to study law or medicine or for a little start in business. There are various causes for this shamefacedness, but there is only one remedy, — better salaries, that is, far more money for education.

At the present time, education is like a great steamship, or fleet of steamships, laboring hard in the trough of the world's sea for want of proper machinery and of sufficient coal to produce power and to utilize it properly for speed. The passengers are all humanity of the future. Unfortunately, the strongest and best men and women of to-day are not yet generally busied with the tasks of education. The activity of a few such leaders shows our common need of them. Those who do not believe that educational improvement can be effected anywhere and almost continuously (with but few reactions), and those who believe that educational progress in their own particular com-

munity is impossible, all the discouraged, whether superintendents or board members, should consider the history of the past ten wonderful years in New York city. The importance of that *demonstration in the concrete* of so considerable a part of the principles and purposes of the new education cannot be overstated. In all our history, nothing greater has been done for the cause of American education. If one man, marshaling others worthy of such leadership, can do so thorough a work on so vast a scale against apparently indestructible traditions and irresistible forces, others can do heroic service elsewhere; and so they are doing it, as many a school system in smaller cities testifies, North, South, East, and West. The need everywhere is for men of scholarship, of power, and of faith, men who know how to secure the things hoped for, but unseen.

As the state is served by the lawyers, the church by the ministers, and the family and society itself by the physicians, so the school should be served by the teachers. For the maintenance of every great social institution, a profession able to render it expert service is required. In education, much confusion has arisen from failure to discriminate between the school and the profession that maintains it. Every true profession admits and discharges its own members; devises and applies its own principles, in its own way; chooses its own leaders and suffers no authority from without; fixes its own fees: in short, at the climax of its development, renders its expert service upon its own terms. To promote teaching as a profession is to forward most effectively the interests of the school.

PATERSON, N.J., November 1, 1904.

W. E. C.

PREFACE TO REVISED EDITION

THE publication of *Our City Schools: Their Management and Supervision* as a complementary volume to *Our Schools: Their Administration and Supervision* affords an opportunity to present a new and revised edition of this latter work. The changes have not been numerous: they consist of corrections of the few typographical errors in the former edition, of revisions of statistics designed to bring the text to date, of changes here and there in phrases that did not convey my intended meaning, the addition of a few paragraphs at ends of chapters, and a new and extended table of contents to meet the needs of professors using the book in class. The paging of the two editions remains the same so that books bearing the various dates may be used in the same class.

The original manuscript of *Our Schools* was prepared in Bloomfield, N. J., a town then of about twelve thousand inhabitants, lying between the cities of Newark, Passaic, and Paterson. I was superintendent there for seven years and more. A month or so before the book was issued from the press, I became superintendent of schools in Paterson. After an experience of two years there, I became superintendent for the District of Columbia, with charge of all the schools for white and colored youth. In the course of these four years in which I have in a measure controlled public education in cities of one hundred and twenty-five thousand inhabitants and of three hundred and thirty thousand, I have traveled widely, visiting schools in communities as far apart as Boston, Seattle, Denver, St. Louis, and Atlanta. In all, twenty-five weeks have been thus occupied in observation.

This experience has but confirmed the major opinions of the text as prepared in 1904. 1. It is the community and not the board of education that makes the schools. 2. While the general tendency is progressive, there is reaction in many places. 3. The best schools are in the smaller cities and in towns. 4. To insure school reform and to make it permanent, we must get better fundamental legislation: if possible, we must get amendments to our State Constitutions. 5. We must labor ceaselessly to convert the occupation of teaching into the profession of education, — labor until the end is gained. 6. We need more money, several times as much as we are getting now. 7. We should do all this in the enlightened faith that education is the cure for civilization.

In several regions of our country, it is now being predicted that we are at the beginning of a genuine educational renaissance. There are certainly not a few signs that warrant this hope for the welfare of humanity.

W. E. C.

WASHINGTON, D. C., January 1, 1908.

PREFACE TO SECOND REVISED EDITION

AN experience in recent years that had led to travel in every State of the Union warns me to urge all educators diligently to inquire in the field of real affairs what is being done. The extremes of good management and of ruinous management or sheer anarchy are wider apart than men of but local information imagine. Often, there is help to be had for one's own schools from educators elsewhere. Especially should teachers of school administration try to get illustrative material from all parts of the country. School superintendents do well to have upon the walls of their offices photographs of fine school buildings. It is the nature of seed to grow.

W. E. C.

COLLEGE OF WOOSTER, December 1, 1915.

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OUR SCHOOLS: THEIR ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

CHAPTER I

THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

THE important feature of modern life as contrasted with earlier ages is the extensive development of schools. General education is the unique characteristic of recent decades.

The great social institutions are: Property, Family, Church, State, Occupation, School, Culture, and Charity. To these we may add the antisocial institutions of War and Business. The motive of Property is self-enlargement. That of family life in the Home is self-abnegation. The motive of the Church is self-effacement, rising in true religion to absolute self-sacrifice. The motive of the democratic State is self-assertion. That of Occupation is self-support. The School exists for self-culture. The motive of Culture in its arts and sciences is self-expression. That of Charity is self-enrichment through sympathy. The motive of War is self-aggrandizement, while that of Business is self-interest.¹ *Because of these distinctions in motive, we cannot ask one social institution to perform the functions of another.* In the modern age, there have been developing new definitions of the functions of these great social institutions. The school no longer exists to prepare men for a clerical life. Its present purpose is to become universal,—to prepare children, youth, and adults for more efficient service in each of the other great institutions.

¹ Vide Chapter II, *A Theory of Motives, Ideals, and Values in Education*; also Chapter I, *Our City Schools*.

Because each of the great institutions of modern society originated by differentiation from earlier conditions and serves a special purpose, various efforts designed to affect the School may at once be recognized as illogical or reactionary. To make religion the basis of education is to return into the past before churches and schools were differentiated from the temples and were developed as independent and integral social institutions. It is to convert the school partly into a church, and to do this whether the instruction is general or denominational. The school aims to enlarge the individual life, and cannot properly teach as its main lesson self-denial. Similarly, a strictly utilitarian curriculum, pupil self-government, and paternalism (or maternalism) appear objectionable upon logical or historical grounds.

From the point of view of school management, the unit of education is the school or school system that depends for its financial support upon a single local board of control. From the point of view of the education of the pupils, the unit is the individual who is being instructed. From the point of view of public instruction, considered as an affair of the neighboring community, the unit is the single school, irrespective of what other schools may be associated with it in dependence upon a single governing board for support. The individual teacher in a school of several teachers is the unit in education only when education is considered as a matter wholly of imparting knowledge in definite items, as prescribed by formal courses of study.

In American free common education, as seen in most communities, there may be one, two, or more schools under the control of a single governing board, whose executive agent is the superintendent of all of the schools. Occasionally, there are communities divided into several school

districts with several more or less independent governing boards. Also, there are instances where several communities have but one common board of school control. Again, there are instances where several communities with several independent governing boards employ a single general superintendent for all their schools. There are still other communities in which the several schools have no general superintendent, but in which the principals are under the direct control of the board itself.

Free common education means to-day, by legal interpretation of the statutes in most States, education in any school supported wholly by public tax or by other public funds. In the smaller communities of from three to fifty thousand people, it includes the general high school or union school or free academy for the oldest pupils, the elementary or grammar schools for the great majority of boys and girls, and the kindergartens for the youngest pupils. In the typical community of ten thousand people, we usually find a school system on these lines, namely:—

Board of Education

Superintendent

High School

Elementary Schools

The elementary schools are usually from three to six in number, with or without kindergartens.

The jurisdiction of the superintendent is usually coterminous with that of the board of control.

Subordinate to the superintendent are two groups of school directors, the principals of the schools, and the supervisors of special subjects, such as music, art, and

manual training. In cities under ten thousand in population, the superintendent of schools is usually also principal of the high school. In such a case, his rank and authority are higher than that of other principals. In larger communities, the principals are usually independent of one another, and are of equal authority and rank except for the fact that the graduates of elementary schools go to the high school. Consequently, the high school principal has the superior prestige, and usually a higher salary than the elementary school principals.

The supervisors of special subjects are subordinate to the superintendent; but in their subjects, so far as their planning of the instruction is concerned, they are superior to the principals. They are employed as experts and, from that very fact, are recognized as such.

From the administrator's point of view, all the class teachers, except such as may be heads of departments, irrespective of grades or salaries, are of equal rank.

A typical school system with one hundred teachers upon the payroll would be as follows, viz.:—

Board of Education.

Its Component Committees.

(1) Superintendent.

(6) Supervisors: Music, Art, Physical Training, Manual Training, etc.¹

(10) Principals.

(1) High School.

(9) Elementary Schools.

(1) Assistant Superintendent or Supervisor for Primary Grades.

(10) High School Teachers.

(28) Grammar School Teachers.

(35) Primary Teachers.

(10) Kindergartners.

(Total, 100.)

¹ For a discussion of the need of sociologists, psychologists, and physicians *de facto*, if not *in nomine*, as supervisors, see Chapter VII, "The Supervisorship."

In a highly developed school system, the relative numbers of supervisors, principals, and teachers would be about as suggested by the figures in parentheses. Such a system cares for a total enrollment of from thirty-five hundred to four thousand children, aged four to twenty years, and housed in ten separate school buildings. In a very complete school system, there would be a considerably larger number of supervisors and specialists.

For the financial support of a school system, the board of education is officially responsible. Its chief business is to get enough money to run the schools properly. How it is to get this money depends upon the laws of the State; and these laws differ greatly in the various States. Indeed, they sometimes differ within the same State, for many communities have special charter provisions incorporated in the fundamental laws creating the municipalities.

No financial provisions are more common than the first two explained below. The third is becoming more common.

1. The board of education itself has the power directly to levy taxes and to issue bonds upon the ratable property of the municipality. The money thus secured is all that the schools have. The rate of taxation is sometimes limited to a certain number of mills per dollar. The amount of outstanding bonds is sometimes limited to a certain number of dollars of bonds to every thousand dollars of property.¹

2. The board of education goes to the town or city council or other governing body with its request for money, and the council grants what seems proper. There are sometimes provisions of limits as to tax rate and bond issues.²

3. Members of the board of education and of the council, their relative numbers being fixed by law, hold a joint meeting and decide the

¹ It is a significant fact that American State legislatures have regarded it necessary so often to limit the effort that a municipality may make to develop an intelligent, orderly, progressive, wealth-producing citizenship.

² See 1, above.

amount of tax and bonds for school uses. When the amounts exceed certain limits, the council has a veto upon the decisions of the joint board of school estimate.

4. The schools have for current expenses certain rates fixed by State law. The amounts realized from taxation are independent of changing local conditions, except so far as the ratable property increases or decreases in amount. Bond issues for purchase of land or erection of buildings are, however, arranged as in 1, 2, 3, above.

5. For variations affecting more or less each of the above plans, in certain States there are grants of money from the State treasury through general taxation, usually of corporations and inheritances. These grants may be based upon the number of teachers employed, upon days' attendance of children, upon the numbers of classes maintained, upon the census of children of school age and upon similar easily secured and proven facts. The State tax is sometimes partly direct, at fixed rates upon property.

6. Again, to vary the conditions, in many States there are funds derived from lands or from sales of lands. The incoming funds or their profits are granted upon certain conditions for such purposes as encouraging libraries in schools, assisting in the support of evening schools or of manual training, and partly paying superintendents' salaries.

7. Similarly, in some instances, the incoming funds from licenses for the sale of intoxicants, for dogs, and for public entertainments are paid over, in whole or in part, to the public treasury to help in the support of the schools.

Whatever is the system, whether simple or complex, it is the business of the board of education to cause it to operate as far as possible for the good of the schools, whether so doing brings the members of such boards into politics, State or municipal, or not. Consequently, it is the duty of every member of the board to know the school law thoroughly.

In addition to the board of education and to the superintendent of schools, there is, in many States, provision for a board of examiners whose duty it is to license teachers. This board of examiners may consist of the superintendent

of schools and of certain members of the board of education ; it may consist partly of these officers and partly of other persons selected by the board of education ; or it may consist wholly of persons outside the board.

Whatever may be the procedure by which a board of examiners is constituted, the duty of the board is to decide upon the qualifications of candidates for positions as teachers. This duty may involve investigation of their education and experience, or examination of their proficiency in academic and professional subjects, or both. Successful candidates receive licenses permitting them to teach for a term, or for a year, or for years, or for life, in various departments of the schools.

A typical school system is thus composed of various more or less independent departments, the board of education, the teachers, usually the municipal council in whole or in part, in respect to appropriations, and sometimes of a board of examiners, more or less distinct in its membership from the board and the teachers.

The State is fundamentally the maker of the school, for its legislation and legal decisions determine the conditions of the school's establishment, maintenance, and growth. Frequently, the State is a direct contributor to the financial support of the school by grants from funds or taxes. Sometimes, the State maintains the office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction upon a broader basis than the mere collecting of statistics of expenditures and attendance, and thus becomes itself an agency for administration and supervision. In many States, there are State boards of education, with more or less extended jurisdiction and responsibilities. Such boards usually control the State normal schools for the training of teachers, and sometimes they control also the State schools for defectives and incorrigibles,

Our local schools have no connection with the United States Government, — not even with the Bureau of Education, whose duty consists merely of collecting and publishing statistics and other authentic school information.

The tendency in school affairs is to increase the authority of boards of education, if need be, by decreasing that of the municipal councils; to strengthen the State control over the schools, particularly in matters relating to the employment of teachers and to the erection of good school buildings; and to separate the responsibilities of boards of education from those of the teachers. State centralization is steadily proceeding. The differentiation of the duties of board members and of school teachers is steadily growing clearer. By this differentiation, the board legislates upon all financial matters, and, with or without a veto, advises upon all educational matters, while the teaching force legislates upon educational matters, and advises only, upon financial matters.

To illustrate: In a city, the board of education usually fixes the salary of a new teaching position, while the superintendent nominates the occupant of the position. The board may, or may not, have the power to reject nominations. The tendency at the present time is for boards to surrender the right to originate nominations.

To illustrate again: The superintendent, with or without a council of principals and teachers, usually decides upon text-books with more or less definite authority in their selection or "listing," and advises the purchase of certain numbers of them at certain prices.

To illustrate by a third case: The teaching force reports the need of another schoolhouse, advises the board regarding its plans, size, location, grades to be taught, probable number of pupils, equipment, and apparatus. The board of education legislates upon all these matters.

Board members visit schools as they see fit or as they may be required by law. The school superintendent has a seat and a voice in all board meetings. When by merit

he belongs in the position, nine times out of ten he can carry a majority of the votes for any measure that he favors, and can defeat any measure to which he is opposed.

The public usually regards the officers of the board and the superintendent of the schools as the persons responsible for their general conduct and management. This view is substantially correct, for these persons hold office only during the time that they represent the purposes and opinions of a majority of the board. They necessarily settle many details between board meetings.

The line of demarcation between the rights, duties, and responsibilities of boards of education, and the rights, duties, and responsibilities of school superintendents, supervisors, and principals, is theoretically plain and straight. Boards of education deal with financial matters; supervisors, with educational matters. As a board member no person has any official rights at all except to vote, but as a delegated agent he may wield the entire authority of the board.

Not infrequently, a well-meaning board member undertakes what really does not concern him. This is especially true of members recently elected or appointed, and is occasionally true of members who have been long in office, with a weak superintendent nominally in control of educational affairs. Sometimes, a superintendent goes out of his legitimate province. This occurs at times from self-assertiveness, crowding a weak board out of its proper business. A vigorous superintendent may undertake to negotiate for the purchase of real estate for a new school building. At times, the superintendent wanders from the straight path because of undue humility. Such a man is forced into a clerk-relation, — paying bills and buying petty supplies.

It is not as easy in practice as it is in theory to draw the

line between financial and educational affairs; but an analogy will help. A school superintendent in relation to a board of education stands somewhat as an attorney to a client.¹ The client has all the rights, but has assigned all but one of them to his attorney, — namely, the right to withdraw his affairs from his care. He is employed because he knows better how to forward his client's affairs than the client himself knows. In the well-conducted school system, this principle governs the mutual relations of board and superintendent.

A superintendent of schools cannot properly be considered a subordinate of a board of education; even less is he a subordinate of any board member. *A professional man cannot be the subordinate of one who in respect to his profession is a layman.* This is exactly as true of an educator as of a physician. A professional man who accepts orders from any one else that go counter to the principles of his profession is false to the profession, to his employer, and to himself: he is without honor. As a lawyer, he is liable to be disbarred; as a minister, to be unfrocked. The true superintendent is not the chief of the subordinates of a board: his teachers are not the subordinates of the board but of the superintendent. Like himself, the teachers cannot be the subordinates of laymen. Their loyalty is to the superintendent, not to the board.

The receipt of money for services is not from the board but from the community: it cannot degrade the educator any more than his fee degrades the physician. The economic view of the business men on a board as to wage-earners and salary-recipients must not pervert us from a clear understanding of our professional relation.

¹ The plan by which at board meetings the educational interests are represented professionally by a single person who has no vote is not ideal. It results too frequently in the overpowering of the one man by the number and the votes of the many board members. Various plans have been proposed to remedy this. One is the complete separation of the legislative and executive departments (the American political system), with all communications between them by written report and committee conference. Another is the creation of a school council equal in number with the board of education, with the right to attend the latter's meetings as delegates without a vote.

CHAPTER II

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION¹

By whatever name the board of education may be called, its session is the substitute for the town meeting of the true democracy. Through the board of education, the people rule the school. A board member is neither an educator nor a governor. As a board member, he is, individually, nothing but a citizen. An individual counts only as one of the majority in control. There is no board of education except in meeting duly called and convened, and then only after roll-call and before adjournment. Not even in board meeting has a member any authority; he has only his voice and his vote. The control of the schools is in the vote. The resolutions that are regularly adopted govern the schools.

All of the authority of any board member is that legally given to him by the vote of the board as its agent. This authority must be expressly delegated, and is never implied. Officers of boards have the same authority as other members except in so far as State laws or board resolutions delegate express authority to them.

¹ From a theoretical point of view, the best title for the board that legislates for the schools is "The Board of School Control," but the more common title now is the "Board of Education." The advantage of the title "Board of School Control" is that it states the fact, which is that the board governs the schools, whereas the objection to the title "Board of Education" is, that the board ought not to take charge of the educational work in the schools, and ought not to be considered as having charge of such work. In short, the function of the "Board of School Control" ought to be to provide ways and means for the teachers to do their work, — to accomplish their mission in the world. The title "Board of Education" causes many members in their first year of office, to assume professional relations that sometimes embarrass the real educators.

In a representative democracy, these things cannot be otherwise. Only the vote can count.

Illustrations may be multiplied.

A board of nine once convened, after a canvass before the meeting had shown an opinion of eight to one in favor of a certain proposition. After discussion, the one convinced the eight, and a unanimous vote was recorded against the proposition. Promises made by some of the eight before the board meeting did not have to be recalled after the meeting, for they were obviously null and void.

Again, it occurred that a certain member of a board of education assumed the functions of the entire board and issued orders accordingly. He did this with the approval of several other board members. The next session of the board, without discussion, revoked all the orders.

A committee of a certain board, "without power," agreed to purchase land. At the regular meeting, the agreement was not sustained. The owner of the land could not collect any damages.

Whether for good or for evil, not a week goes by in which board members do not discover that membership gives them a voice and a vote, but no authority whatever. The board in session represents the people. The members are merely individuals selected as delegates of the people.

A board member, as such, has not even the authority of the superintendent of schools, or of a principal, or of a teacher, or of a clerk, or of a janitor. His position implies no relation as agent. This is a hard doctrine, resented in certain quarters until it is understood, and often not understood even by the employees of the board.

Irrespective of the method of his appointment, a board member ought to represent a constituency. He ought to stand for some people and for some social ideas. The following classes of persons furnish good board members generally, namely, —

1. Manufacturers accustomed to dealing with bodies of men and with important business interests.

They handle large amounts of money and of property, and are not

frightened at bond issues and at the totals of annual appropriations. They know that a hundred thousand dollars can be spent as honestly as ten dollars.

2. Merchants, contractors, bankers, and other men of large affairs.

A board of education controls a business, and deals with the business side of education.

3. Physicians, if in successful practice.

They are too busy to worry over details as do most professional people of small affairs. At the same time, their interest in hygiene and sanitation is invaluable. Their success evidences a sound, natural judgment, and their wide knowledge of life tends to develop common sense.

4. College graduates in any walk in life who are successful in their own affairs remember what education has done for them.

They usually understand the rights of children and adults to the inheritances of the race in literature, art, industry, as well as in the three R's. When, however, such graduates do not properly appreciate culture, they are peculiarly dangerous to the educational welfare of the community.

The following classes of persons seldom furnish valuable board members: —

1. Inexperienced young men, whatever be their calling.

2. Unsuccessful men.

3. Old men retired from business.

4. Politicians.

5. Newspaper men.

6. Uneducated and unlearned men.

7. Men in subordinate business positions.

8. Women.

Because there have been within my knowledge persons in each of these classes who have been successful as board members, I state at some length my reasons for saying that they are generally unsuccessful.

1. The immature young man has known too little of the great experiences of life: parenthood, loss of relatives, power over men and affairs. He has too little heart, — too little tenderness of heart; too little tact; too little of that great requisite, common sense or good judgment.

He is apt to be ambitious, and to desire to use his board membership for some personal or partisan end. He is too near the days of his own education to be able to see reasons for doing things differently, and thus trying to make progress in the schools. Occasionally, he is also inclined to view the school superintendent as a teacher no longer to be followed.

As a general proposition, it must be said that persons under thirty years of age do not add to the success of a board of control in education. Most unfortunately, there is a marked tendency in cities to elect very young men to boards.

2. Unsuccessful men are injurious to the welfare of the schools, for the very obvious reason that most men who have made failures of their own lives lack judgment, energy, or tact, or all these things combined. Being unsuccessful, they are likely to have a good deal of unemployed time upon their hands. This they are inclined to use in usurping, or in trying to usurp, the functions of supervisors. Being inefficient, they are, however, more annoying than harmful; and they are not likely to secure reelection. Being unsuccessful, they are usually unhappy, and their companionship is depressing to educators.

3. Old men retired from business are apt to be restless and irritable. They are also apt to be sure that their opinions are correct, and their age makes it unpleasant to argue with them and difficult for them to understand the meaning of an argument.

"Time hangs heavy" upon their hands, and they are much inclined to worry over school affairs.

4. Politicians are decidedly objectionable. They look upon janitorships as the "spoils of office" and as the means of maintaining political supporters. By politicians, I mean persons without visible means of adequate support, who nevertheless manage to keep their families in the necessities and often the comforts, even the luxuries, of life. Such persons are apt to desire an economical administration of the school affairs, because in such conditions it is easy to use public office to one's own advantage.¹

5. Newspaper men are inclined to exploit school affairs for "copy" in the press. Sensationalism is not less injurious to schools than to churches.

6. Uneducated and unlearned men help make boards of education into boards *for* education. They consume the time of supervisors in discussion of the elements of educational theory and practice. Their vote is often dangerous to the interests of culture, even when the men themselves mean well.

7. Of all these comparatively objectionable classes of men considered as material for good board members, not the least objectionable is the class of men in subordinate positions. Their time in the

¹ See note p. 161.

working hours of the day is usually not their own except by their employers' special permission, and hence they can seldom visit the schools. They are accustomed to obey, not to rule, — an unfortunate habit in any legislator or judge. They follow too meekly any leader.

A good board consists exclusively of men able to think for themselves and to explain the reasons for their conclusions. It is composed of persons with widely varied interests, no two of whom are otherwise closely associated.

8. From several causes, women make undesirable board members. When married, they are usually busy with their children or grandchildren. When unmarried, or married and childless, they have many theories about children. Being women, they care little (and usually understand less) about business, which in reality is the only direct concern of the board. Whether married or not, women are generally much under the influence of particular men.¹ Moreover, their presence in the board makes the full discussion of several important topics impossible.

There are two classes of women that may supply good board members. The first of these is composed of mothers whose children are grown men and women, and who have been well-educated themselves, and have given their sons and daughters good educations in high school and college. This class is that of women of experience and culture. A second class is that of women of property or of profession, with broad experience in life, by travel and acquaintance with affairs. This is a very small but a growing class. The presence of one woman on a board is perhaps more desirable than is that of any man from one of the seven objectionable classes; but the presence of two or more women constitutes a positive detriment to public business. There are two plausible reasons for placing women of these classes upon boards of control in education. More than half of the pupils at school are of their sex. At least half of all the parents of school children are of their sex.

Objections are sometimes offered also to the following: —

1. Preachers and priests.

For obvious reasons, such persons are likely to place religion before school education. There are, however, too many liberal men in the ministry and priesthood to warrant objection to the entire class. Certain religious doctrines seem opposed to the very theory of education because they inculcate the belief that life is not a growth but a static condition.

¹ A profound belief in the wisdom and righteousness of female suffrage does not prevent my recognition of these facts. As a matter of official experience, I am unable to indorse women as board members. They do not "play fair"; that is, according to the agreed rules of the game. They object to any rules, and yet demand special favors.

Perhaps the greatest real objection to ministers as a class is that they deal with individuals as such, and are inclined to be too much interested in the individual welfare of pupils and teachers. The religious politician is sometimes too much in evidence.

A successful and busy minister or priest represents a large constituency and often makes a good board member.

The retired minister, when still young in mind and in years, who is doing some literary work, often makes a very desirable member, for he is likely to be a man of culture, aspiration, experience, and good faith.

2. Lawyers.

The chief objection to lawyers is their contentiousness in board affairs. Other objections are, their lack of executive qualities, their indecision, proneness to procrastination, talkativeness where action is needed, and inclination to politics.

All these objections apply at times. Yet a good lawyer, who is a parent, a trustee of estates, and accustomed to secrecy in the affairs of clients, may make an admirable board member.

3. Bachelors.

Except when unmarried men are young, no sound objection can lie to their service upon boards of education. On the contrary, having no domestic home affairs, they are free for much evening work upon committees regarding board affairs, and, therefore, often make desirable members. It is true that they have no children in the schools, but this is not wholly a disadvantage. Childless men are often very fond of children and youth.

The ideal board member has the following qualifications ; namely :—

1. Age from thirty to sixty-five years.
2. Education at least to the extent of high school graduation.
3. Experience in the affairs of property, of a profession, or of a business.
4. The confidence in himself and the reputation for good judgment that come with success in one's personal affairs.

A board composed exclusively of such men is an ideal board. When a majority of the members meet these four standards, or most of them, a community may congratulate itself upon having a very good board.

These standards have been presented in the order of their importance, the last being least.

The foregoing principles have been stated with great fullness, because as school superintendents improve in quality and increase in

number, they are considering more and more what sort of men to desire for board membership. More and more, also, they are being consulted by the makers of candidates for office, regarding nominations or appointments. At the present time, in American cities, as a matter of custom, school superintendents have longer tenure in office than board members. The supervisors have still longer tenures. As for the principals of city schools, their tenure "during competence and good behavior" almost always means tenure for life, when they desire it. Consequently, the sort of men educators as a class desire and intend to have, they can usually get for board members.

The typical board of education is kaleidoscopic. Few men serve three terms. Not one in fifty serves twenty-five years. Not one in a thousand serves fifty years. As school supervision becomes more and more a profession, the school superintendent looks forward to a life service. It is very much his business to influence the people of his community in the election or appointment of good board members. This influence ought, however, invariably to relate to the principles involved and not to the persons.

Of honesty as a prerequisite for board membership, it is not necessary to say much. The law and the courts will take care of all overt dishonesty. Secret dishonesty is very hard to prove. Irrespective of its effects upon his personal fortunes, it is the duty of every school superintendent, supervisor, and principal, both to oppose the election or appointment of dishonest men, and to endeavor to remove them from office, when actually in office.

Of partisan politics, it is also unnecessary to say much. Neither Republicanism, Democracy, Populism, Socialism, nor any other "ism" is necessarily a qualification or disqualification for board membership. A partisan board may be as good as a bipartisan, or a tripartisan, or a "mugwump" board. But any use of the board's legal powers, or of a board member's political influence, for partisan

purposes, is reprehensible in the extreme. Appointments of Democratic janitors, Republican truant officers, Populist clerks, because of their politics, is abuse of official power. No school superintendent does his full duty who, at his earliest opportunity, does not publicly rebuke every such appointment.

When every school superintendent does his full duty in this respect, the day will have passed when janitors of schools get higher incomes than principals.

After the question of the personal qualifications of men for board membership, the next great question is the mode of their selection.

Three methods prevail, namely, —

First, election by wards.

Second, appointment by mayors.

Third, election at large.

There are other methods, but these are the most common. The advantages and disadvantages of each are these, namely, —

I. In election by wards, men are secured who generally are interested in the local school or schools. From one point of view, this is a distinct advantage. Ward members are known and can be reached by their neighbors, to whom as constituents they are responsible. From another point of view, it is a distinct disadvantage, for it opens the way to much factional and partisan politics, to "wire-pulling" and "log-rolling."

To offset these advantages, there are numerous disadvantages. The larger the city and the greater the number of the wards, the greater are the disadvantages. Further, the greater the number of wards in proportion to the size of the city, the greater are the disadvantages. That is, a city of twenty-five thousand people and ten wards suffers

much more from these disadvantages than a city of the same population with five wards. In such a city, with but three or four wards, the disadvantages are scarcely operative at all.

Since ward election is the most common of all methods of selecting board members, the disadvantages must be fully considered here.

The first of these disadvantages is in the limitation of persons from whom to select board members. In every community, the people who are successful in their personal affairs tend to settle in neighborhoods. It follows, often, that entire wards contain very few persons competent to serve upon boards of education.

In the second place, the wards that are composed almost wholly of persons who have not been successful in life's affairs in the modern social system of capital-and-labor, work-for-wages, land-for-rent, business-for-profit, are not likely to select their best citizens but their most popular ones. In point of fact, it often happens that the school janitor, belonging to the dominant party, selects the candidate for board membership and practically puts him into office. Persons thus selected are not likely to possess the four great qualifications of sufficient age, good education, large experience, and self-confidence based upon success. On the contrary, boards of education elected by wards in cities almost invariably and inevitably contain members whose daily vocations are such as these : Steam engineers, saloon-keepers, petty tradesmen, mechanics, politicians with no visible means of support, rent-collectors, insurance agents, clerks, and other wage-earners.¹

¹ I speak plainly. Once in half a dozen instances such men make good board members; four times they make indifferent members; and once they are likely to be "grafters" or stumbling-blocks to progress. The weakness of an hereditary political aristocracy is that it permits many persons of small mental capacity and of inferior moral character to influence,

In the third place, the members who are desirable, coming from intelligent and well-intentioned wards, have little or no influence in the wards that elect undesirable members. Consequently, boards elected by wards are almost inevitably not only partisan, but also factional. The larger the number of wards, the more this disadvantage is in evidence.

In the fourth place, ward election means that no board member represents the city as his constituency. This places every board member at a singular disadvantage in respect to all the supervising force, especially the superintendent, whose jurisdiction covers the entire city. This results in jealousy.

To illustrate: A board member, elected by a ward, immediately after his election introduced a resolution constituting each member a visitor to some special school in his ward, with power to nominate janitors and teachers. He based his argument upon three premises: First, that this would give each member something definite to do and a school to which he would become personally attached. Further, when each man had one school in his care, no school would be neglected. Third, that no man was really competent or inclined to interest himself equally in all the schools. This was a direct attack upon the school superintendent and was probably due to jealousy.

The objections to such a plan are as diverse as is the explanation of the motive of the resolution, which was to reduce the power of the superintendent till it was less than that of the ward member. These objections are fully indicated in the foregoing pages. No board member, as such, has any legal jurisdiction. He has only a vote. Again, the danger is that he may work for one school even against the interests of other schools and of the system as a whole. Yet further, he may use the power over one school, when he has it, to his own advantage and to its disadvantage as an instrument of education. Fourth, when the

if not to control, great affairs; the weakness of our elective political democracy is that it often deliberately promotes to positions of social control persons essentially no better fitted for their duties than Old World nobles. Unfortunately, our economic aristocracy, tending now to be hereditary, in many ways, direct and indirect, seems to encourage official incompetence and moral unfitness.

superintendent is incompetent or disinclined to work equitably for the interest of every school and of all schools, the community needs a new superintendent, one new superintendent, not a collection of non-professional superintendents, one to a school.

This case has been presented fully, for it is typical. In effect, it prevails in practice in many American cities; and it is always pernicious. Its result in practice is to set the various schools, their principals, teachers, and board representatives, at odds with each other.

For a superintendent or for a board to recognize that this state of affairs actually exists in the schools is to take the first step to do away with it.

In the fifth place, ward election is a disadvantage because the system attracts the ambitious young politician, particularly the young lawyer who wishes "to get before the public." His plan is to make board membership a stepping-stone to office in the city council or in the lower house of the State legislature. Not infrequently, a young politician will move into a ward simply because he sees there, or thinks that he sees there, an opening into politics *via* board membership.

Membership upon the board of control in education ought to be, not the weapon of success, but the crown of it. To use any educational relation for one's personal ends is to profane the temple. We may forgive one who seeks to use his membership upon a board of education for any other end than the general welfare, but we must not ignore the offense.

In the sixth place, election by wards is extremely objectionable when it occurs in connection with State and national elections, which necessarily are based upon the lines of the great party politics and policies. When the attention of the voters is distracted from local conditions by national political principles, then is the opportunity of city "bosses" and machines to place in nomination and in

course of election by the dominant party any person, however incompetent and base he may be.

In the seventh place, ward election greatly complicates the appointment of candidates. When a particular city of four or five wards elects from two wards the only really qualified members, these are the men who ought to have the chairmanships of the important sub-committees of the board. To relegate the other members, not as well qualified, to the unimportant committees as subordinate members is to create conditions from which constant friction must result.

II. A second mode of selecting board members is that of appointment by the mayor.

Ward election is more and more objectionable in proportion to the size of the population, and to the extent of its division into wards. Appointment by the mayor is increasingly desirable in the same proportion. It is the easiest solution of a grave problem. But it is not always a true solution.

The first great advantage of appointment by the mayor meets the first disadvantage of ward election. The mayor can select from the entire city, and consequently can select the best men. Further, while it is often difficult to get good men to run for the office, such men seldom decline appointment. Undoubtedly, the sort of man who objects to going before the people is not the ideal good man, but he is a much better man than his opposite, the noisy politician, who delights in elections.

The second advantage of appointment by the mayor is that the appointee represents the mayor, who himself represents the entire city. The appointed board member looks upon the whole community as his constituency.

The third advantage is that every citizen can hold the

mayor responsible for the unwise or wrong act of any board member. To locate responsibility is to take the first step toward competence and honesty in office. Moreover, the mayor is extremely unlikely to appoint a man less honest and intelligent than himself. He likes to be well thought of by the people generally. Therefore, he desires to have the best citizens known as his friends.

The fourth advantage is that reappointments are very common. A good board member, who, despite the work involved, the responsibility, and the care, is willing to serve a second term is almost certain to make a better board member than before. There are exceptions, no doubt, but the principle is sound.

The fifth advantage is that an appointive office is seldom in line with any elective office. No appointed member is likely to consult his own political future in any of his acts. He is not likely to try to curry favor with any particular class of people or section of a city, in the hope of promotion to a more important office. That he may try to please the mayor, is not necessarily undesirable.

Lastly, members serving by appointment are likely to be of much the same uniformly high grade of persons. The school superintendent is very likely to be consulted in their selection except in cases of reappointment. Consequently, there are no jealousies because this man represents a ward of wealth and culture, and that man a ward of working people, too busy and too tired to select good men as candidates in the party primaries.

Yet there are serious disadvantages to boards by appointment of the mayor. The appointed officer sometimes is too much under the influence of an unfit appointing officer; and the people generally take no interest in the affairs of boards serving by appointment.

An illustration serves to explain the first disadvantage.

An election was offered to a certain educator as superintendent of a certain city by the nominating committee to which that power had been delegated by an appointive board. The successful candidate made three conditions precedent to acceptance. To the third of these conditions, which related to building a schoolhouse, the chairman of the committee replied, "I cannot do that. You see Mr. A (the mayor) comes up for reelection next year, and if the board builds that schoolhouse now, he will lose the support of," etc. This board member was anxious for his friend's political welfare.

This serious disadvantage is in the personal relation often existing between the mayor and his appointees. Evidences of it are frequent. It tends to color the opinions of all board members and to influence their acts. Sometimes, this is a good feature. But the ideal state of affairs is where each board member thinks and acts independently of all personal considerations for himself or anybody else.

A less serious disadvantage is the community's loss of interest in school affairs through their loss of direct power over them. An elected board member is answerable to his constituency, and this constituency is interested in him, and through him, in the school affairs.

This disadvantage is more apparent than real, for parents are necessarily interested in their schools and in an immediate way. Public education can never be very far from the people.

Another objection to appointive boards is not necessarily inherent in their constitution. This objection is that the membership is often not well distributed geographically. Sometimes, many of the members come from a single neighborhood. This may be unfortunate, but it does not necessarily conduce to the injury of the schools. A mayor makes at least some of his appointments by consultation

with others. When important or large sections seem likely to be without representation, it is the duty of good citizens to bring proper persons to the mayor's attention.

There is an incidental advantage, not educational in its nature, but distinctly valuable in the upbuilding of a city, in the fact that when it is felt in a mayoralty election that the mayor has the power to make or unmake the schools, good citizens will increase their endeavors to secure a good man for the office. As a general proposition, the better the conduct of the city's general affairs, the better the conduct of educational matters. The more power the mayor has, the more likely is the election of a strong and honest man. Such is the general principle. Of course, the connection of the mayor with the schools is apt to be forgotten in the excitement of the campaigns for nomination and election.

III. The least common method is the election of a board of education at large.

The advantages of this method are these ; namely :—

First: Every board member represents the entire city directly. To this entire constituency he is responsible.

Second: Candidates can be taken from any part of the city. Two good men may be available in one ward, while none is available in another. This freedom and this range of choice tend together to secure a high average of personal qualifications for board membership.

Third: Many good men who will not run as ward candidates will do so as city candidates, because the honor of election is so much greater.

Fourth: As a board member, the man in office is not interested more in one school than in another. He has no special neighborhood interests to protect for political reasons.

Fifth (and this advantage relates as well to the appointive board): In election at large, a small board may be provided.

When a city has eight wards and two members from each ward, the board is composed of sixteen members, each holding office for two years. Such a board is too large, as is argued later.

There are certain disadvantages in the elective board, however, that must not be disregarded.

First: When a board is elected at large, the election of board members, in the politician's eye, takes on large significance. Consequently, there is likelihood of the election of mere politicians or tools of politicians.¹

Second: In this case the people are inclined to look upon board membership as a political office. This, rightly, no one should ever think it to be. But in the present condition of American politics, a board elected upon a Republican or a Democratic ticket is likely to consider obligations that at most are personal and private, as political and public.

Irrespective of the number of men upon a board of education, and upon the supposition that the number is the same whether the members are elected by wards, or at large, or are appointed by the mayor, the following appear as incontrovertible conclusions:—

A large city, divided into wards, each electing board members, is in *an intolerable educational condition*. A board of sixty, of even four hundred, members is not unknown in America. Wherever it is known, the school conditions are unworthy of our enlightened times.

In a city of middle size, twenty to fifty thousand people, a board elected by wards is endurable, but not desirable.

¹ See page 64.

In communities of less than twenty thousand people and not divided into more than four or five wards, such a board may be as good as any other, and perhaps better than an appointive board.

In large cities, the appointive board is likely to be more valuable to the schools than any other save the board elected at large at a special election. This method almost completely separates government and education and therefore divorces politics from the schools.

In cities of the middle size, the choice between a board by appointment of the mayor and a board by election at large must depend upon local conditions. As a general principle, the latter is preferable in a democratic nation. To remove from the people the right to select directly their officers who legislate in so important a department as that of free public education, is to assert the people's incompetence directly to rule themselves. It is certainly preferable when the school members are elected and appropriations are determined at special elections.

In the smallest places where there is a school system, a board by appointment is undesirable. A board by election at large is the best kind of board for towns and cities of less than twenty thousand in population. This has been demonstrated abundantly in our newer States.

However, under special conditions, a board by appointment may be a failure in a city of a quarter of a million ; a board by election at large may be a failure in a town of five thousand people ; and a board by ward election is likely to be a failure almost anywhere. Change is often desirable, because, though not every change produces progress, with no change there can be no progress. Mere change of persons in office may not be enough. A change in the system seems often to be required. Upon the occasions of change, the educator has a chance to move for progress.

There is an argument for appointive boards that deserves brief consideration, and it is to this effect : A city is a municipal unit over which the chief officer is the mayor. To shut him out from any authority over the schools and yet to hold him responsible for the conduct of

municipal affairs, seems unfair and illogical. There is, however, in truth, but a slight connection at best between the general municipal administration and the educational department, and this connection is purely financial.

Unquestionably, at the present time the schools are in a transitional state in their development. It seems hardly probable that the method of an entirely independent department, a school district covering the same territory as the city government, yet independent of it, will long continue. The tendency in American government is toward concentration of authority and consolidation of interests. The important thing is so to direct this tendency as to secure the best possible legislation for the schools.]

The first consideration relative to boards of education is the quality of their members; the second is the mode of their election; the third is the length of their tenure of office; the fourth is the number of members; and the fifth is their compensation, if any, in office. The first two, the most difficult, have been considered at some length.

The ordinary term of board members in office when elected by wards is two years. Each ward elects two members, often called commissioners, one each year, each of whom serves two years. This is too brief a term, and brings too close together the exciting periods of nomination and election. It is especially objectionable because, in actual practice, few members serve second, third, and more terms. The first year of any man's experience in a position dealing with practical affairs is seldom one of much value to any person except himself. The ignorance of what business a board of education has to transact is sometimes not so great as the new member's confidence in his opinion as to what business the board ought to transact, but it is generally very marked. Modest men can do

little or nothing the first year they are in office. A two years' term seldom gives more than one year's good service.

On the other hand, when an unwise election or appointment has been made, a long term of office becomes dangerous to the welfare of the schools. Five years seem to be the extreme limit that ought to be considered for board members. Similarly, a term of three years appears to be the minimum of a wise length of tenure. The larger the community, the longer should be the tenure.

In communities of from five to twenty thousand, three years is a sufficient tenure, but a four years' tenure is better than two. In communities above twenty thousand, a term of four years makes a wise period. All the good members are likely to be reëlected or reappointed. The longer the tenure the greater the likelihood of a second or third term. When tenures exceeding four years are attempted, many good men shrink from definitely binding themselves for so long a period of time, fearing too great changes in the affairs of private life.

It is sometimes said that the terms of board members should be as long as the term of the tenure of the school superintendent. No city should elect a school superintendent for less than three years. There is a serious objection to giving him a longer term than a board member has, for the reason that he may then be in office with a unanimously hostile board. To illustrate:—

Superintendent elected for four years, — say 1904.

Board elected for three years, — say 1904.

1904. — Unanimous election of superintendent, 15 votes.

1905. — Elect, hostile members, 5 votes.

1906. — Elect, hostile members, 5 votes.

1907. — Elect, hostile members, 5 votes.

Consequently during 1907–1908 the board is wholly against him.

There is an objection to giving the superintendent the same period tenure as the board members, namely, that he

comes up for reelection at the end of each term at the same season, with the same general group of members. This throws him into politics to secure their reelection or re-appointment. The remedy is to reelect (or defeat him) just before the end of their terms.¹

The next and fourth question relating to boards of education is, What is the best size for them? The extremes are indeed extremes. On the one side, we have the single school "visitor" or "trustee," and on the other side the complicated system of a central board of many members, with many subordinate local boards. Such a central board usually has an executive committee, or its equivalent. What is the ideal size for a community under fifty thousand and over five?

Certainly the ideal board consists not of one man, and not even of so small a number as three. The system by which one layman has control of the schools is educationally as bad as that by which the control is vested in a board composed of fifty or more members. Without stating fully the objections to these small numbers, I present the reasons for advocating boards of from five to ten members, the nearer five the better.

First: Seven board members are enough to give a reasonable variety of opinions, and yet not so many that they may not sit down and reason together. Five makes an even better number for discussion directed to the point in issue.

Second: Seven men may be formed into three committees of two men each, with the chairman of the board *ex officio* a member of each. Committees of two or three are large enough to avoid serious errors upon matters of

¹ Other aspects of this question are considered fully in Chapter V, "The Superintendent."

importance, and yet not so large that they cannot be gathered together quickly. They are not so large as to permit the shifting of responsibility from one member to another, till finally no one is held.

Third: Small boards are far more likely than large boards to consider candidly and thoroughly the reports of committees.

Fourth: It is possible for the school superintendent to know personally every member of a small board, and yet to transact his routine business. Calling upon, even writing to, the separate members of a large board, in respect to important measures before they are to be acted upon, is practically impossible. Yet this officially intimate relation is of the greatest importance to the success of a school administration.

Fifth: In a small board, every member considers himself, and is considered by the people of his community, responsible for the measures adopted by the board. Absence from a board meeting is uncommon.

Sixth: The members of a small board soon become sufficiently interested to learn at least the elementary principles of school legislation and administration. The advantage of this knowledge is, to the supervising force, immeasurable.

Seventh: Small boards are in a position to deal quietly and carefully with all delicate questions of personality. At critical times, they can avoid undue publicity, scandals, and mob influences. Merely to reduce large boards to small boards, is automatically, perforce, to do away with politics and politicians of the lesser and perhaps baser sort.

Eighth: Small boards attract a superior quality of men. The average of competency and of unselfish interest is nearly always higher in a small board than in a large one.

Ninth: In the small board, the superintendent can get a hearing without becoming an orator. While there can be no objection to a superintendent who is a good extemporaneous public speaker, ability of this kind is not at all essential to success in reasonable conditions.¹

In the light of these advantages, we are ready to consider the very serious objections to boards of over fifteen members, a number that may be taken as the reasonable extreme.

The disadvantages of large boards with thirty, forty-five, sixty, a hundred members, even more, are as follows, namely, —

First: At ordinary routine meetings, it is difficult to get a full attendance. Consequently, there are often “snap” votes.

To illustrate: In a board of thirty-four, twenty attended a meeting, twelve voted for, and seven against, a certain measure. At the next meeting twenty-nine attended. On a motion to rescind, only ten out of the twelve stood by their first vote. The larger the board the less can a superintendent foresee, and the more difficult is it for him to steer, a steady course for progress. Many ill-considered things are done that never would have had the support of a majority of the board members, had all been present.

Second: The large board is an open invitation to the political superintendent or to the educational autocrat. There is no middle course. The superintendent must either “carry water on both shoulders” or be prepared “to get things through” by caucus or by other prearranged devices and forces. He must either submit all details to the board’s “happy-go-lucky” choice, or only the largest matters, and these only when his success is assured by “cut and dried” plans. The political superintendent

¹ This point is fully considered in Chapter V, “The Superintendent.”

becomes nervous and purposeless. The autocrat develops backbone at the expense of brain. Neither has any assurance of long tenure.

When by accident or otherwise a thoroughly reasonable, well-equipped, progressive educator becomes superintendent in a community with a large board of education, his very ability causes him quickly to adjust himself to these conditions. So far as his board knows, he soon becomes a chameleon or a lion. Neither of those characters is desirable for the schools.

Third: The large board is quickly responsive to popular movements. It is timid. A crowd is always weak in pursuit of a plan. It is also vacillating. A crowd can never represent a high average of culture. Consequently, cities with large boards of education are seldom educationally progressive, and never critical of their schools.¹ They always have "schools equal to the best anywhere." To suggest the contrary is to arouse, not inquiry or ambition, but anger.

Fourth: In large boards, only the orators get a hearing. The man who can reason well in conversation but who has no gift and perhaps no aspiration to "stir men's hearts" is not heard except perhaps in a protesting vote. The lone superintendent is but little in evidence, unless he has the genius of a Machiavelli, or of a Bismarck, which (in view of the emoluments of the profession) is very unlikely.

In consequence, large boards represent by their vote the average of the common people's opinion, and not the reasoned product of the best thinkers. This is democratic enough, but true Americanism is a desire to live up to the best.

¹ Those who are curious regarding the actions of crowds may enjoy reading "The Psychology of Socialism," by Le Bon, or "Social Laws," by Tarde.

Fifth: Large boards cannot handle delicate matters successfully.

To illustrate: An aged and worn-out teacher is no longer fit for service. Two propositions come up: to discharge her, or to retire her on a pension. It is not safe to discuss either proposition in a big public meeting. The public often seems to think that anybody who can walk and talk is fit for service as a teacher. The taxpayers usually look upon pensioning teachers as robbery. All that a large board can do, in such a case, is to ignore the facts, which is a sore injustice both to the infirm annuitant going through the motions of a teacher, and to the children in his or her class.

Many other delicate matters must also be ignored.

Sixth: Responsibility cannot be located. A large board almost inevitably divides into the adherents of the two great national parties. Then, because there is no reason inherent in school affairs for any such division, the two groups break into factions. Combinations of these factions put through all school measures. These combinations are constantly changing. There are usually three to six men who are the real leaders. The rest come merely to vote or to hear the proceedings.

Seventh: The work of the various committees of the board is seldom satisfactory. The problem of a proper subdivision of a large board is a very serious one.¹

Eighth: The large board does not lead to many men's desiring reelection or reappointment. The few who do serve term after term get entire control, necessarily by political means. This soon means ring rule without reasoning.

¹ This subject is more fully considered later in this chapter. The choice is either to create many committees, or else to create a few large ones. In a large board, a small committee often has great difficulty in securing the passage of its recommendations, while a large committee is unwieldy. A board of sixty, divided into committees, has more members upon each committee than the entire board should have. The opportunity for the development of a "secret ring" is obvious.

Such, in general, are the several objections to large boards. Three reasons often alleged in their favor deserve consideration.

First: It is said that bribery of large boards by contractors and other persons who deal with the schools is too expensive and too public. In reply, individual bribery is easy and cheap, for many inferior men are elected. Further, only the ring needs to be dealt with; and responsibility is hard to locate.

To illustrate: In a board that was bought to give a certain contract, the two men who "handled the money" voted publicly against the contract. This was shrewd and safe.

Second: It is said that large boards increase the public interest in school affairs. If so, let us make the boards still larger. If one man in a hundred must be placed upon the board, why not one in ten? Why not indeed have the meetings in the public square? In point of fact, often there is not enough business for a large board to transact. In consequence, false issues are often forced into public attention.

The unnecessary instances of debate and even of public excitement in school affairs are very numerous. The most trivial things are brought into the arena. When by accident such things engross the attention of a small board, they are disposed of without public disturbances. The public interest aroused by a large board is not educational in its motive, but sensational and spectacular.

Third: On behalf of large boards, it is said that they enable the school superintendent to "railroad" measures through without debate. A poor superintendent may be vain enough to desire his measures "railroaded through in sealed express cars," but when he persists in this vanity, he will find, among the laymen, competitors trying, and

sooner or later succeeding, in doing the same thing. This is not democracy, but "bossism." A victory, even for progress, when won by force rather than by reason, is likely to cost dear in the end.

The last inquiry regarding boards of control is whether the members deserve, and ought, or ought not, to receive compensation. The answer depends entirely upon the nature of the service rendered. Where a board of education of five or seven members is created as a commission to manage and to visit the schools, giving constant semi-professional service, a certain compensation is in order. Such a board is a part of the supervising staff, however it may be constituted, by election or by appointment.

To make a paid office of board membership is to invite the candidacies of persons looking for the salary. This is to help to create a public impression that the board of control of lay members is really a professional body. As soon as salaries are attached to board membership, then qualifications ought to be attached by State law.

Partly because of public disgust with the dishonesty and incompetence of many boards of education, and partly because of public disgust with the disinterestedness of the gratuitous service of many classes of persons, — namely, of certain taxpayers who are suspected of blocking progress to protect their own pocket-books; politicians, who are suspected of trying to help their friends; etc., — at the present time there is certainly a tendency to establish, or at least to consider the establishment, of paid boards. Qualifications for membership upon such boards may be as follows; namely: age, thirty; education, college, normal, or professional school graduate; residence, three years; property, a thousand dollars of real estate; service, daily (not necessarily all day); term in office, four years;

salary, twelve hundred dollars; number of members of board of control, five; extra compensation to secretary, a hundred dollars.

The presence of such a board, appointed or elected after proven eligibility, with a salary lower than the superintendent's, together with the fact that the membership qualifications are probably less than those of the superintendency, may reduce the authority of the legislative body to less than that of the administrative staff, by mere force of the personalities involved, unless such a board, to protect itself, promptly employs an inferior superintendent. This, however, does not necessarily happen, for men of superior ability may be willing to accept an honorable position.

To illustrate: Such a board in a college city may include a college professor, and in a suburban town a metropolitan principal. Experiments in this direction are, however, generally unsuccessful.

Meantime, it is certainly best for most communities to continue to expect men to serve without pay. When it is argued that this is to prevent poor men from serving, the replies are that in fact poor men are now serving honestly and faithfully, and that poor men who feel that they ought to be earning something instead of working for the schools for nothing have themselves diagnosed their cases correctly. Let them resign that others, whose families do not suffer by such use of their time, may take their places.

All propositions to attach a fee of two dollars for all board and regular committee meetings are perilous in the extreme. There are many men with sufficient leisure to hunt in politics for positions with fees (or salaries) attached, who would work for and in board memberships. To attach fees or salaries would tend to increase the number of board memberships. Further, some men, eager for

these extra sources of income, fees, or salaries, are not strong enough morally to resist bribes.

The American conception of membership, that it is to be faithful but gratuitous service, is probably correct. It is not so hard in America to accumulate a little property, but that, for the present, most boards will contain men able and willing to serve without pay as faithfully and as successfully as with pay.

Is it best to elect the board at a special city election? How shall the candidates be nominated? By petition? Shall a member be eligible for over ten years' continuous service? There are but two objections to electing the board of education at a special election. One is the expense of a separate election, and the other is the small vote cast. The expense is trivial compared with the importance of the interests at stake. As to the vote, it may be said that it will be heavy whenever the issues are important, and its quality will generally be high. With nominations upon petition, the candidates will be sufficiently numerous and independent to warrant the expectation of securing good men. Whether members should be ineligible to serve after a certain number of years is a debatable question. The weight of opinion at the present time favors a discontinuance after two or three terms, but renewed eligibility after being out of office two years. "Rotation in office," however, often means the removal of the best-equipped men.

It would be interesting (and it might be profitable) to take up in a thorough manner the various questions remaining to be considered in this matter of boards of education. But practices differ in such extreme degree as to make such a course altogether too long. In practice, boards get their money in a dozen different ways.

What is the ideal way? Is even the best practicable way an approximation of the ideal way? In practice, boards of nine members may have eleven committees, while boards of twenty-eight or forty-five may have but three or four. In the ideal board of seven members, how many and what committees are best? In practice, teachers are sometimes appointed by subcommittees, sometimes by the full board, sometimes by the superintendent. What is the ideal way? These and several other matters must be considered both theoretically and in the light of experience.

Excepting only the large communities, the plan of a statutory tax rate, of which the proceeds are to go to the public schools, is neither feasible as a theory nor desirable in practice. It is not feasible because in no State could the legislature be brought to agree as to what is a reasonable rate for a variety of communities.

To illustrate: A community has 20,000 people, 5000 children, and \$10,000,000 of property. A statutory rate of 5 mills would give annually to the schools \$50,000,—but \$10 per child. Another community may have 20,000 people, 4000 children, and \$20,000,000 of property. A rate of 5 mills would give \$100,000,—that is \$25 per child.¹

In theory the statutory rate may be desirable, but in practice it is often injurious. A certain modification of it may be desirable; namely, a provision for State grants based upon a State appropriation derived from taxes. By this system, every community is assured of at least a minimum amount of money. The balance is then made up by local taxes.

Where there can be secured no State tax in whole or in part, the best way for the smaller communities to secure money for the schools is neither from levy by boards of

¹ In 1904, Ohio adopted a 12-mill rate. In poor communities, with many children, the per capita cost will certainly be reduced too low.

education nor by appropriation of the council. The objections to giving the board of education in schools entire authority are several.

In the first place, when there are two complete yet separate governments with taxing power over an entire community, jealousies and wrangles usually follow. A heavy city government rate followed by a heavy school rate, each imposed by independent taxing bodies, burdens and annoys the taxpayers, whose politicians are always in evidence. This separation is theoretically contrary to the best and most approved principles of American government.¹ But the practical experience of the newer Western States displays the fact that education prospers best when isolated from government in its narrow sense by constitutional provisions.

In the second place, when the board of education has sole power over the school appropriations, sometimes it does not like to draw too heavy a fire upon itself. Boards that can locate the financial responsibility outside of themselves, upon town meetings, city councils, boards of estimate, and statutory rates are usually liberal in their budgets.

To illustrate: In a certain city where the board of education must send its estimates to the council for approval or reduction, a considerable increase was agreed upon. An opponent of the increase said that it was too much to ask. A majority of the board replied that if it was, the council could say so. Whether they voted or vetoed it, they could be held before the people for their action.

In the third place, when in Eastern States a board has such authority, it seldom has also the authority to bond the municipality for new school buildings. In consequence,

¹ An English property owner often pays taxes or rates to a dozen different authorities, sometimes to a score. This chaos of overlapping jurisdictions is one cause of the weakness of English local development. It has done very great harm to the cause of education there.

new buildings must be provided for in the annual tax levy. In a year when new school buildings are being built, all other expenses are likely to be reduced.¹ This is a very serious defect in the system. Nor is it always remediable by giving boards of education authority to bond the district for new buildings, since few boards are likely to bond courageously in the older, settled communities.

The best system is certainly not where the board of education is subordinate to the council (or other city governing board). For, in such cases, the higher board, being charged with the care of streets, police, sewers, water, and countless other material affairs, sees its own needs and unsympathetically minimizes the needs of the schools, and the moral and intellectual interests of the community. Wherever this system prevails (it is very common), the school appropriations tend to be niggardly.

In the present transitional condition of American municipal government, some method of adjustment and of partial coördination between departments is the desideratum. Such a method² is as follows, namely:—

A board of school estimate to be constituted for a year at a time by the election from the council on ballot of two of its members, and by the election from the board of education of two of its members, with the mayor or other chief executive officer of the municipality as the fifth member; together with the secretary of the board of education as secretary without a vote, and the school superintendent as adviser without a vote.

¹ See page 83, Chapter III.

² This method is substantially that of the State of New Jersey, which has a State tax rate of 2.75 mills per dollar, and a board of school estimate, besides. The exact plan of this board was proposed in 1899 by myself, and presented to the legislature in connection with a general codification, then proceeding, of all the school laws. It has operated with notable success. The average appropriation increase in the first year of its operation in all cities affected by the law was 15 per cent. The limit of the local tax is now three fourths of one per cent of the value of all ratables.

This board of school estimate is empowered to appropriate whatever sums it may think proper for annual current expenses, and to assess the amounts upon the ratables and to bond the municipality for funds for permanent buildings as it may see fit.

The excellence of this plan of a board of school estimate consists in the following features:—

First: While it leaves with the educational officers the majority influence, four educational councilors in seven persons present, it locates the majority power in the municipal officers, three out of five votes. When a board of education has a good plan to present with good reasons, it can usually convince the mayor or at least one councilman.

Second: It unites the municipal government without unduly subordinating the board of education to the municipal legislative board. Such a union in knowledge and sympathy is very desirable.

Third: The plan is wise because it is not special in its application. It is better for the police and street and sewer departments than it is for the schools. It is a plan that can be employed also in the matter of the board of health. Not that the board of school estimate need necessarily be enlarged into a board of school, health, and general estimate, but that special boards of estimate may be similarly constituted.

Fourth: It is better than a mode of constituting the board of estimate of such officers as mayor, chairman of board of education, city treasurer, and other officers elected for express purposes, not necessarily legislative.¹

¹ In the discussion of this matter with the New Jersey Senate Committee on Education, as the originator of the plan, I argued that it is best to make four of the members of the board of estimate, delegates charged by the council or board of education with specific duties. I argued also that often a city treasurer or council finance committee chairman does not represent the real educational views of the community. The principle is familiar in political sci-

Good common school education is essentially a matter of sufficient money properly spent.

Our next inquiry relates to the organization of the board of control in education.

The first principle of such organization is to have small committees. The several advantages of such committees are similar to those of a small board of education. Two or three men can discuss a matter much more carefully than can seven or ten men.

The second principle of such organization is to have the reports of the committees in form for definite discussion by the board. In this respect, there are extremes to be avoided. In no board of education should there be any custom of "railroading" through all the reports of committees, and thus of making them substantially final in their nature. Members not on committees are clearly entitled, as delegates of the people, to know and to discuss the grounds of the conclusions of the committee. The other extreme is to have the report of a committee merely suggestive and often fragmentary. Every committee should report (as far as practicable) in such form that the board may either adopt the report as submitted or definitely amend it. To report back a committee's report for further consideration delays progress, and should seldom be necessary. Upon all financial and other important

ence and may be stated as follows : Never attach to an office duties not essentially involved in it, but, whenever possible, create delegates who are immediately responsible for the wise performance of their duties. A city treasurer on a board of school estimate may look upon that service as a side duty thrust upon him, and, though he performs it conscientiously, may not perform it fully. A school appropriation for permanent buildings or for current expenses is not a mere matter of dollars and cents. It is a problem in transmuting wealth into culture, transmuting matter into spirit; in a literal sense, investing money in mind and soul. Only persons definitely appointed to the task and especially informed regarding its facts and principles can perform it adequately.

In Massachusetts and elsewhere, conferences between school committees and boards of aldermen are becoming more frequent. Though informal, they accomplish often much good by establishing sympathy through mutual understanding.

matters, the reports of committees should be in writing, and should be signed by the chairmen.

The third principle of such organization is to have all committees appointed by the chairman of the board of education and subject to change at his desire. By accepting the chairmanship, a member loses both much of his influence as a floor member in debate, and also his vote except upon ties. Further, he surrenders much of his right to leadership, and must become, as far as possible, judicial in his attitude upon all questions. All these are deprivations of power to the one man who, because he is elected chairman, is doubtless the strongest man in ability and character, taken together, upon the board. The chairman of the board of education should be *ex officio* a member of every committee.

The fourth principle is to duplicate no members in committee membership. If necessary to appoint one man to two different committees, then all members should be so appointed to at least two committees.

To illustrate: A board of education of seven members is regarded as needing five committees. There are six floor members: A, B, C, D, E, and F. Create committees as follows; namely: (1) A, B, C; (2) D, E, F; (3) C, D; (4) B, E; (5) A, F. The more important committees should have the larger number of members.

The fifth principle is to create as few committees as possible, providing one committee membership for each member or two committee memberships for each, and omitting none of the members from committees. This principle applies to large boards after the first principle.

To illustrate: It is better to divide a large board, of twenty-four, for example, into six committees of four each, than into four committees of six each. Since four may be taken as the extreme limit of a working committee, large boards are forced into over-minute subdivisions of

their work. Here, small boards of from five to nine with their committees of from two to three members each are at great advantage.

In fact, most of the trouble that school superintendents have with school legislation is because they have large boards with minutely subdivided committee organization, from which results a tendency on the part of board committees with little to do, to go into matters of school administration and of school supervision that do not properly concern board members who are laymen. Nevertheless, many small committees with minute duties are preferable to large committees that are little better than debating clubs, or else mere pawns for the real chess players, the board leaders.

The sixth principle is to appoint as chairman of committees, the old members, giving them as far as possible the line of work in which they have secured experience. Nice questions of personality, of ability, and of experience here often confront the board of education chairman, or the school superintendent, who is called upon to give advice.

To illustrate: A board has three committees, — Buildings, Teachers, Books and Supplies. At this particular time, new buildings are going up, and Buildings is recognized as the most important committee chairmanship. The former chairman is not returned to the board. The second member of the Buildings Committee and the chairmen of the Teachers and Supplies Committees all desire the position. To whom should it go? In these circumstances, the chairman of the board will consider the length of service on the board, the general ability, the leisure, etc., of each member, but, all things being equal, he will promote the Buildings Committee member for two reasons, — because that member has had some special experience, and because to do so continues the other committees in the same hands.

The seventh principle is vital, and relates to the board as the employer of a supervising force: no committee is

created that undertakes a professional duty. There is no committee on statistics and attendance, on text-books, on methods, or on instruction. Experts and specialists are employed to do all the executive work. A democracy must not expect an unsalaried and unprofessional board to serve professionally without pay. The principle applies even to the care of repairs.

To apply these principles to the ideal board of seven, — we may have three committees:—

Chairman of Board of Education—member of all committees *ex officio*.

Committee on Teachers—two members.

Committee on Buildings—two members.

Committee on Supplies—two members.

The Teachers Committee deals with the salaries of teachers, schedules, estimates, consideration of superintendent's nominations of teachers, organization of new classes, truancy, complaints of parents, consideration of superintendent's and teachers' recommendations of books to be purchased and courses of study to be printed, transfers of teachers, etc. The listing of all books and the making of all courses of study should be vested absolutely and finally in the superintendent.

Physicians, employers, men of mature years, make the ideal members.

The Buildings Committee deals with sites, buildings, contracts, improvements, repairs, sanitation, janitors, etc.

This committee has heavy work when new buildings are going up. Often it needs a special employee, a superintending architect. It has heavy work also in vacation time, when repairs are in progress.

Only men of business affairs belong in this committee.

The Supplies Committee buys text-books and supplies, attends to correspondence, legal affairs, and all the minor

details. When the board of education secretary is also a member of the board, this is properly his committee. This committee often needs a special employee, the business manager, so called. In large cities, this committee has a multitude of small duties.

Bankers, merchants, men with a little time to spare because they have incomes independent of daily work, are the best men for this committee. When lawyers come upon the board, as they often do (for the law is the open door to all public offices), this is their committee.

A proper subdivision of large boards is to be secured not by enlarging the duties of the board by encroachments upon those of the supervising force that manages the educational affairs of the schools, but by judicious subdivisions of the board's proper duties. Large boards (above eight or nine) ought not to exist, except in cities of half a million people or more. The greatest corporations are best handled by small boards of directors.

The only reasons why really large boards (over ten members for places under a quarter of a million) are endured, are two; namely:—

First: Many cities have not yet secured educational superintendents who understand the real duties of their position and who propose to discharge them. Most boards employ clerks or agents, not superintendents in even the business meaning of that term. In such places, the boards are doing incompetently much work that really does not belong to them.

Second: The people in general entirely misconceive the proper and the usual duties of the board.

Of this, illustrations are too numerous even to classify.

Some of these misconceptions spring from tradition and from sheer lack of effort to find the facts. The tradition is that the "school trustee" "hires" the teacher and

manages him as long as he stays in the school, and then "hires" another teacher. By this tradition, the "school trustee" is the sole authority. The "trustee," for the time being, represents, almost is, the sovereign people. From this tradition, in its countless forms and applications, spring all manner of ideas and actions, including, indeed, most of the laws upon the statute-books of our various States.

To illustrate: In a certain city, a parent called upon a board member and remarked: "Of course, you have so many teachers under you, I suppose you have to give your entire time to the work. You must get tired going to school every day."

In the same city, a memorial was drawn up and signed by several citizens, advising the board to discharge the superintendent, upon the ground that the board was "misappropriating the people's money in employing a man to do things the board is elected to do."

The plain people have usually a great deal of good common sense, but they rely for most of it upon oral tradition; and school superintendents are too recent a product of our cultural evolution to be well understood by most people.

With regard to the appointment of teachers, in comparison with the overwhelming importance of the matter, very little needs to be said, but this must be said emphatically and unequivocally. The American system of government is that of checks and balances. Our government, both National and State, is divided into the legislative, the executive, and the judicial departments. Our legislatures are bicameral; our executives are responsible alike to the legislature and to the courts; our judges alone are independent, but only so long as they themselves are honest and of good report. In the school government, we have an incomplete development of this system. The board of education is the entire legislature; and it elects the executive officers, whose incidental judicial authority is subject

to appeal to the board. The board is indeed the people, in the democratic sense. It has, or can take back to itself, all the legal powers, as far as it has such powers, by State laws and by its own resolutions in accordance therewith.

This board of laymen, having neither time nor inclination for executive work, selects a supervising officer, or several such officers, for that work. The body of electors, the popular democracy, has, indeed, strange views regarding the duties of board members, but no voter supposes that the elected board members are "to teach school," or that they are competent to teach school. If not competent and not expected to teach, they are certainly not competent to decide who are competent to teach.

No doubt, most boards of education actually decide every year, or rather go through the form of deciding, who the teachers are to be. Even where there are school superintendents, often they are not consulted. There is a popular idea that, though no one of a dozen men knows much of anything about school-teaching, the entire dozen, as a body, has an expert, and therefore a valuable, opinion on the subject. This is an interesting aspect of the popular belief in America, *Vox populi, vox dei*. It is often true that the best man on a board will persuade the rest to adopt his opinions. It is occasionally true that, after consideration and discussion, a body of men will come to a wiser conclusion than any one man could reach alone; but it is always true that no stream can rise higher than its source. No board of laymen can possibly know once a year as much about teachers and teaching as a single expert knows any day and every day.

That a doctor of medicine knows more about health and disease than any number of laymen, no one would seriously question. His profession is publicly and unanimously recognized. Until the individual

is proven a failure, the physician is taken at face value. But in education there is no presumption of expert knowledge. The individual teacher must prove that he possesses skill far beyond that of the layman. Then as a recognized master of the science and art of teaching, the school administrator may be considered sufficiently wise and responsible to nominate teachers, to select text-books, and to plan courses of study, without suggestion or correction from the board or from any member.

For towns and cities with superintendents, there is but one correct method of appointing, transferring, and discharging teachers : —

1. To elect a superintendent competent to take the initiative in all such matters. This often involves discharging a superintendent incompetent to perform the duty. This may *sometimes* be done decently by offering him a principalship or a subordinate supervisorship.

2. To lodge in the superintendent the sole right to nominate teachers or to suggest their transfer or discharge. Then to hold the superintendent responsible for the visible results in school discipline, progress, and interest.

3. To make rules upon which the superintendent must base all his nominations and other recommendations.

To illustrate: A rule that every high school teacher must hold a certain license, one of whose features may be a college diploma.

4. To retain the veto upon all recommendations, in the form of a requirement that all appointments are to be made by the board in regular meeting upon the superintendent's nomination. Such are the main lines of the only correct method.

Many communities have now advanced as far as to direct the school superintendent to appoint all temporary teachers, retaining for the board the responsibility only of final and permanent appointments.

The other two methods of appointment of teachers are both bad. There is the common method, in small places,

of permitting any board member to make nominations. This is sometimes limited by a requirement that only the teachers' committee can nominate. This method is simply politics, though it may be called by other and more attractive names. It is politics because no layman can make a professional decision. It may be religious or social or partisan politics, or it may be merely the politics of personality for acquaintance' sake. And it may be the politics of factionalism. The politician board member may deny the impeachment. I have known superintendents (who never dared to nominate a teacher) say that their teachers were always selected by the board impartially. It cannot be so, unless the applicants are taken in order of application, "first come, first served." This method actually does obtain in not a few places, which means that many incompetent teachers are employed in American free common schools. Unless the board does this ignorantly, it is recreant to its trust, false to childhood and youth, and treacherous to the community and to the nation. And if the board appoints all applicants in ignorance of what competence is, then only the good Father of us all can save that community, for in it the light is darkness. It is the duty of every school superintendent as a good citizen, loyal to his country, to try to send some light into that community, wherever it may be, as soon as he knows of its plight. It cannot save itself.

When a board tries to choose between applicants, politics is the only standard. Her sponsor says, "This girl is So-and-So's daughter; her teachers say this; her pastor says that; she talks thus well; and dresses and looks such-and-such a way." No man knows how much she understands of the work that she has offered to do, how well she can teach, how fairly she can adjust herself to subjects, to grades, and to pupils of the position to be filled. Instead, extraneous matters are brought in. "Her parents are dead or poor or ambitious." "It will please A

or X to see her appointed." "We ought to encourage the graduates of our high school." After her appointment, no one is responsible for her success or for her failure. In a headless school system, no one is likely to know that she is a failure unless she fails so utterly that she voluntarily resigns.

I have used the word "girl" with two purposes. When laymen appoint, they deal with a human being as such, not with the human being elevated to a profession, the girl become the woman teacher. The professional school superintendent has in mind, not her claims, but those of his pupils and of their parents; he deals with the higher personality, the woman of culture. In the second place, I desired to present first the simple politics of the laymen who select female teachers.

When a board of education, unenlightened by a competent expert educator, undertakes to appoint a man to any position, and especially when this appointment is to a position as principal, or as a subordinate supervisor, politics are usually flagrant. Because the man is a voter, the question of his politics, whether Republican or Democratic, or neither, comes forward. Whether he belongs to a church or not, and if to a church, to what church, must be known and discussed. Of what societies, open or secret, he is a member, must be known. When married, the question of wife and children enters in. Now all these matters may be interesting, but they all relate to the man as a man, not as a teacher.

To illustrate: In a certain small community, there were three prominent religious denominations. A man was to be chosen as high school first assistant. The supervising principal was of denomination A, the president of the board of education was of denomination B, the secretary of the board was of denomination C. The board, unenlightened by the principal, passed a resolution to bar all candidates belonging to any one of these denominations. As the board was unanimously of a certain party, it was well understood that only a man who was a member of that party and not a member of denominations A, B, or C, was eligible. The final selection aroused such animosity in that town as to make the life of the successful candidate there unendurable, and he resigned at midyear.

No true wisdom can reasonably be expected when teachers are selected without professional advice, for lay-

men are necessarily blind to the essential qualities of teachers, both male and female. These essential qualities can be enumerated; but in the living persons of candidates, only the expert can recognize them.

But it will be remarked, sometimes members of a board may really know more about human nature than the superintendent of schools. However, when it is true that upon any board of education there is a single man actually more competent to select teachers than the superintendent, that board needs a new superintendent. It may be objected that some man on the board seems to be a genius in reading human nature. If so, the trained talent of the school superintendent should be still more expert in selecting the person whose human nature is skilled in teaching. Or, it may be objected that the remarkable board member is rich or famous or accustomed to power, while the school superintendent is only a school superintendent, that is, a poor man, not famous or accustomed to power or able to take it. If so, then get an educator who is able to wrench the power of selecting teachers from the usurpers of that power.

I use that term "usurpers" advisedly.¹ I desire to emphasize it. Historically, nothing is more preposterous than the *coup* by which boards of education, when first created by State laws, proceeded to show their new power by selecting teachers unprofessionally. Democracy, seeking intelligence as the sole means of its own preservation, found that it must take possession of the schools; to do so, it organized boards of education. The original purposes of these boards were to multiply schools until all children were educated sufficiently to be safe citizens, and to support financially the persons who teach in the schools.

¹ See Chapter IX, p. 240.

This second purpose is the more important, though the less obvious. Before democracy secularized and supported education, the number of teachers was relatively much smaller than it is now. The reason for this was that most persons who desired to teach could not find enough paying pupils to provide them with sufficient means for livelihood. In other words, most parents were too poor (and indeed are yet) to pay for the schooling of their children. To provide a means, then, of taxing property so that all children might be instructed, was the important purpose of free common education under public boards of education. This does not mean that great "bugaboo," raising or increasing the salaries of teachers; it means simply providing the salaries of teachers.

The first boards of education did not select the teachers. A careful examination of early school records affords convincing evidence that when the old "pay" schools were converted into free schools, the old teachers were continued. The first boards in the older States, the boards that superseded proprietary principals, many of them living from hand to mouth upon tuitions, never undertook to select principals and teachers. The mode of replacement was always very simple. The principal-teacher filled the vacancy when a teacher left; the next assistant was duly promoted where the principal-teacher left. This means that the board did not interfere in professional affairs. Those early boards of our forefathers never dreamed of preparing without professional advice courses of study and rules and regulations for teachers and scholars.

There was, however, a large number of schools with but one teacher. When that teacher left, he could not sell out as in the former days. He sometimes did recommend a successor. Sometimes, however, the boards were forced

to exercise a choice, and from these country districts of one-teacher schools the custom of the selection of teachers by boards spread to all schools.¹ It was all part and parcel of the great democratic movement. Even the essentially undemocratic school, that most aristocratic of all institutions, succumbed to the doctrine that the people must rule. By the very definition of school, the fallacy of complete democratic control becomes apparent. A school is a relation between superior and inferior in which the superior deliberately and openly sets out to impart knowledge to, and to develop the powers of, the inferior, and in which the inferior is definitely required to submit to the authority of the superior.

The reason why the fallacy was not at once apparent is this.^{*} Every adult regards himself as superior to every child. Therefore, any adult may serve as the teacher of any child. Conclusion, any board of adults is competent to select those official superiors of the children, the teachers, for any adults who are willing to do the work are sufficiently competent.

It does not serve to answer that the premise, "Any adult is superior to any child," is untrue, though in the higher grades at least some youths are manifestly superior in ability, character, and knowledge to many adults. For the counter answer is quick to come that any board of education would be unlikely to appoint as a teacher a man or woman inferior in ability, character, and knowledge to a considerable number of the students.

There is, indeed, but one adequate criticism of the plan

¹ In early New England, the church-town often selected the public teacher, and fixed the income that he was to receive from fees. At that period there was no "board of education" or "school trustee" or school "visitor." The election of the teacher was by pure democracy. The nomination was usually made by the one well-educated man in the town, the pastor.

of board selection of teachers ; this criticism is a challenge, and only the competent are safe in making it. This criticism has already been stated clearly. Teaching is a profession that renders an expert service ; consequently, only experts can decide with uniform wisdom and success regarding the qualifications of members or would-be members of the profession.

It was the issuance of this challenge, and the proof of it upon public trial, that converted surgery from the occupation of the barber-leech to the profession of to-day. The fact that teachers must issue the challenge does not, as is indeed claimed by some of our critics, amount to a confession that there is no profession of teaching. On the contrary, the fact of the challenge cries with a loud voice that a profession has come into being. Educators insist that *at no point in the public school system may laymen properly step in to interfere with the due order of its educational affairs*, either by examining applicants for entrance into the profession, or by reëxamining teachers for promotion to any higher positions, or by selecting teachers for any positions, or by transferring or discharging any. Let us not merely concede the right of the people to govern their schools : let us rather proclaim the right, desiring to see democracy in control of all schools, private and endowed, kindergarten and university. But to proclaim the right to govern schools is not to concede a right to misgovern them, for to misgovern the schools is to transform them from schools into institutions with places for revenue. A person holding a teacher's position and drawing a teacher's salary who is not professionally recognized as competent is not a teacher, but a public pensioner, a political annuitant, a pauper almoner. Not every person in every classroom of America is ready to do the work God means to be

done there. Pupils, parents, employers, friends, citizens, board members, daily testify to this fact. Often, the fact is obvious to all, where none sees the remedy; more often, many see the remedy that the majority are unwilling to apply. The idea of the control of the schools in their least detail is dear to many who have few other opportunities to exercise power.

The true analogue of a school system in a community of ten to twenty thousand people is a manufacturing corporation employing five thousand persons. The board of capitalist-directors corresponds with the board of citizen-commissioners, the manager corresponds with the school superintendent, the foremen correspond with the teachers, the employees at their routine tasks correspond with the pupils, young and old, at their desks or at the laboratory tables, and the public of commercial consumers corresponds with the public of critical parents and friends. In this analogue, there is but one serious defect. In the business factory, the employees are making things as their product; in the school factory, the pupils are making themselves as their product.

As an analogue of the school system, the great factory with its various shops is exceedingly instructive in several features. One of these is valuable in respect to instruction. As the foremen do not actually make the products, so the teachers do not make the pupils. Of the factory, we say that the workmen produce the goods; so ought we to say of the school, that the children make their new and better selves. It is not the teaching, not the instruction, that makes the great school, but the learning, the self-activity, of the students. Herein, appears a vital principle, which it is well for the expert educators to emphasize to lay school commissioners: it is not what knowledge the teacher has that makes the good teacher, it is not even what skill the teacher has in imparting knowledge; it is solely what art the teacher displays in inducing the students to learn knowledge and to work for the development of skill.

In the history of the world, this idea of teaching as an art is not new. Before the days of Jesus, it was discussed amply by Socrates. He called him the greatest philosopher

and the best teacher, who, like an *accoucheur*, assists at the birth of the learner's ideas. Upon that analysis, we cannot improve. Jesus, the greatest of teachers, made the central principle of His system, the truth, "Ye must be born again." The process of a true education, of a real unfolding of a human mind, is indeed a series of new births, of regenerations, by which man's eternal youth is forever being renewed, by which the human life is forever growing into the larger life of the divine, whence we spring.

Upon the very face of this discussion appears the truth that here is a matter of vast and deep import, not less vast and deep than the matters that concern the priest and minister, the surgeon and physician, the judge and the advocate. The impartial man, with no interests to serve, with no position to maintain, with no traditions to obey, — such a man will regret that, as a school board member, he has any duties to observe in connection with the employment of the members of the teaching profession and with their assignments to particular kinds of service. Because he is impartial, disinterested, thoughtful, and free, because he takes up his duty as the delegate of the democracy, with reluctance and self-distrust, he makes a good board member. Not the eager, but the judicial, make the competent legislators, judges, and administrators. In respect to the selection and transfer and discharge of teachers, this duty is simple and important.

The good father who employs a physician to attend his children reserves the right, not to decide whether the practitioner is or is not a physician, nor even whether or not this or that remedy prescribed is good, but simply whether or not the physician is sufficiently successful to be continued in the family practice. Once employed, the physician is trusted wholly. The analogy with the good school commissioner is complete. He reserves, not the right to say whether or not this person is a teacher, nor whether this or that study or method in a study is

good, but simply whether the teacher is sufficiently successful to be retained.¹

The foregoing treatment of the all-important, because fundamental, subject of the board of control in education will doubtless seem strange to many superintendents, indeed, to most. The cause for surprise is plain. Only in a few centers of progress are these ideas familiar. I do not desire to avoid any part of the responsibility for any or all results that may follow my candid publication of the cause. Such a publication is greatly needed in these times, — needed for the rescue as far as may be, of millions of children from inadequate educational opportunities; needed for the good of this great nation in its domestic, colonial, and international affairs; needed for the promotion of the vital interests of humanity, which are intelligence, energy, efficiency, justice, sympathy, opportunity, and freedom.

In America, there are not now a sufficient number of good boards of education, rationally organized, with competent members. Most school superintendents have never known by experience what a good board of education really is. No doubt, nearly all school superintendents have had some good board members. A smaller number have had some good boards. Very few school superintendents have known what it is to have a thoroughly good board for a series of years. For myself, I never permit myself (or, when I can prevent it, any other school superintendent) to criticise a fellow-superintendent for success or failure until I know with what kind of a board he has had to deal. I have known many competent men to fail solely because the members of their boards were distinctly unfit to perform the duties of board membership.

¹ This topic is discussed further, and this principle is carried out to its logical conclusions, in Chapter IV, "Supervision."

By the failure of a school superintendent, I mean these things, any or all of them: —

First, failure to place his teaching force upon a strictly professional basis.

Second, failure to secure for all new buildings scientific arrangements for blackboards, lighting, heating, ventilation, and sanitation, and adequate provisions for playgrounds, kindergartens, manual training, science, physical training, and music, with their due equipment.

Third, failure to secure a modern course of study with professional control of all its details.

Fourth, failure to win reasonable, frequent, and timely increases of salaries for the teachers, and improvement of their tenure with pensions for old age.

Fifth, freedom for himself to deal solely with professional affairs, leaving politics to outsiders, finance to board members, business details to the clerical employees of the board.

I call the superintendency of that man a failure whose board selects the teachers, who cannot get adequate funds for new buildings, who has not the control of the course of study after its formal adoption, whose advice is not followed in changes in the course, whose years in his office have not been marked by advances in salaries, or who must spend a greater or a smaller part of his time in political or petty business affairs. I call him a failure in the superintendency, though I am willing to recognize that in many cases, perhaps in most, the potent cause may lie outside of himself.

To make this perfectly clear, I will illustrate what I mean by a poor or a bad board member.¹

¹ Earlier in this chapter I presented what seem to me the fundamental conditions for a good board. Without those conditions, a board is necessarily not a good board. See also Chapter V, "The Superintendent."

First, the openly dishonest man. He is often noisy; owns his ward; defies exposure; threatens his opponents; fights his enemies; bullies the superintendent, or tries to; terrorizes the local school principal; "stands in" with the local janitor; takes bribes, "grafts," gifts, in whatever form they are offered; knows nothing, or affects to know nothing, of ethics; and exemplifies the principle, "Nothing succeeds like success."

He is not common upon boards of education. There are not ordinarily enough opportunities for him, to furnish inducements to stay on in the office. He serves a term or two, and while he serves, brings discredit upon all his associates.

A school superintendent, to render such a man harmless, must be of perfect moral health and of uncommon moral vigor, for there is only one way to deal with him. That way is to *make war on him*, in season and out of season. Never spare him. Perhaps the very first element of character that a good school superintendent needs is that "Fear does not sit between his eyes." The offensively dangerous man affords the competent school superintendent an excellent opportunity to demonstrate his courage. Unquestionably, when the war is on, it may possibly terminate in the immediate defeat of the school superintendent. However, defeat by an openly dishonest man, marshaling such forces as support such a character, seldom results in loss of livelihood. On the contrary, a school superintendent strong enough to do heavy battle for good schools is likely to rise from defeat to a still better position. In America, the actively righteous are seldom forsaken.

Second, the quietly dishonest man. It takes some time after going to a new community for a school superintendent to find him out. Sometimes, when such a man comes as a new member upon the board, he behaves so well for a time as to deceive the very elect. The fact that he is quiet in his "deals," or attempts at "deals," gives the superintendent his hint as to the method of dealing with him — *publicity*. Such a man is very dangerous until he is discovered. When discovered and advertised, he is almost certain to resign. He is certain to cease to be active upon the board.

It may be objected that it is not the business of a school superintendent to cleanse his board of education.¹ If not, whose business is

¹ In Chapter V, I discuss the question of the kind of morality every superintendent owes to himself and to his school system.

it? A good superintendent is a faithful shepherd of his flock. The wolf must be driven away, and the viper crushed.

Third, the densely ignorant man. Strange as it may seem, the competent school superintendent need have no trouble at all with the densely ignorant man who is not dishonest. Such men seldom are dishonest or vicious. The densely ignorant man may be rich, or he may be poor. When he is rich, he is usually parsimonious, though not always so. When he is poor, he is usually timid. The certainty in the condition of the densely ignorant man is that he is always ready to be led. This gives the real superintendent, the capable man, his opportunity. Let him deal very candidly and very thoroughly with this man, affording him *abundant data* in every matter that concerns the board in its control of the schools.

A school superintendent who will invariably deal with justice and candor and thoroughness in all educational matters can soon establish such an influence — the influence of character — over a densely ignorant man as to control his vote. God has chosen to make ignorant men hearty admirers of the strong and of the clear-headed who are kind and patient and who remember that the field of teaching is not confined to the instruction of the young.

To illustrate: A densely ignorant man was elected to a board of education upon a pledge to reduce the power of the superintendent and, under certain conditions, to secure either his resignation or his discharge. The new board member was a man who had first made himself wealthy by his own efforts, and then was made rich by a series of deaths, by which a remote fortune fell to him. He was an uncommonly far-handed and far-sighted business man, — a merchant, a real estate dealer, and a contractor. He could see a dollar through a ledge of rock, and when he believed that it could be gotten for ninety-nine cents' worth of labor, would hire the laborer and then drive him so that ninety-eight cents' worth of labor would get the dollar. This man, when he came upon the board, believed three things, namely: that the school superintendent had developed a high school whose course was fully equal to that of any college; that the superintendent violated rules and regulations of the board whenever he chose to do so; and that the superintendent misrepresented the financial expenditures in relation to the statistics of attendance.

This particular school superintendent knew his man and went all the way to meet him. Before the third regular monthly meeting had

passed, a local politician said to the superintendent: "We put that man on the board to defeat you. He is now one of your strongest supporters. How did you convert him?" The truth was that this particular board member, like all ignorant men, valued absolute facts as beyond price. He had found out, by close examination of the record, that the educator was exactly as honest and as industrious in his profession as he, the business man, was in his occupation. Therefore, though not converted to the cause of educational progress, he supported the school superintendent loyally, whether he understood him or not.

One such victory in the camp of the enemies of good schools is never forgotten in the community, and adds greatly to the prestige of the educator's office. It shows that a competent superintendent can manage men, as well as teachers and children. It is, however, unfortunate to be compelled to treat a board of education as a board for education.¹

Fourth, the unmoral and the immoral man. In the course of the vagaries of American municipal politics, it occasionally happens that some unmoral, or even immoral, man is thrust upon a board of education, to sit as a guardian within the gates of those holy temples of learning, the common schools. Americans are characteristically so virtuous that reduced school appropriations, establishments of private schools to take the children of clean homes, withdrawal of public support in cases of school discipline, a widening chasm between the great body of the teachers and the school authorities, and an antagonistic relation of the homes to the schools are all certain to follow.

A competent school superintendent, irrespective of his own character, sees ruin ahead when this kind of man begins to make himself felt in school affairs. The only question is how to turn that ruin from the schools upon the offending board member. The mode of dealing with the man must be determined by all the circumstances; but the motive, the purification of the school system, and the purpose, the speediest removal of the board member, are immutable. His conversion is not enough. No one will believe in that. The superintendent must clean house, making as little dust and as little din as possible, but thoroughly accomplishing the *moral sanitation*. The American people desire and will have their teachers, men and women, so clean in morals as to be above and beyond reproach and remote from suspicion. The immoral man must be coaxed or driven out of the board, and the school employees who have erred must go with him.

¹ See page 166.

Fifth, the mere politician. The board members of our municipalities, village, town, and city, may be conveniently and universally classified under six heads, two main, and four subordinate, as follows ; namely : —

Board members	{	1. Politicians	{	1. Self-interested
				2. Partisan
				3. Disinterested
				4. Patriotic
	{	2. Not politicians		

The man who is not a politician is not likely to serve many terms in any progressive community. I have defined a politician elsewhere as a man who without visible or known sources of private income gives his time, or a considerable part of it, in office or out of office, to public affairs, and thereby secures an income larger than honest people can fairly explain to their own satisfaction and justify in ethics and morals. I am now about to use the word in a broader and a better sense, to mean the man who gives a large amount of his time and of his thought to public affairs, in an effort to direct their course not solely by the inherent value of the plans that he advocates. The true politician effects his plans (or affects those of other men) by considerations extraneous to their own merit. He is a "log-roller" and exchanges the advocacy of a plan for one matter in return for the advocacy of a plan for a different matter. His influence can be bargained for, as also may his opposition. He is ready to threaten or to cajole. He is not necessarily corrupt in the sense of getting gains in money or its equivalent for himself or his friends, but he is necessarily capable of simulation and dissimulation, and of considering a proposition in the light of its policy and of its relation to other policies.

The self-interested politician is one whose first concern is his own welfare. His influence upon a board of public control is debasing. He is apt to be corrupt and to fall under the classification of the first or second heads, above, of poor or bad board members.

The partisan politician is one who considers every move that he makes, or that those associated with him in the board of education make, in its relation to the advancement of his own party. He desires to have the school superintendent and the janitors of his own party. He discusses the school appropriation in relation to the tax rate because

his party will have to stand for it, or against it, as a feature of partisan administration or opposition.

The disinterested politician is one who mixes in public affairs for the joy of being a part of the public life of the community. He is not working for himself, or for his friends, or for his party, or for any church, or for any person or institution whatever. He is an individual. He is a "free lance." He has energy and intelligence. Often he is a "crank"; sometimes he is a genius; always he is a disturbing factor because, where he is, things move. He can be converted sometimes into a politician of the next and higher class. Until he is thus converted, he is a constant source of anxiety to the friends of good schools.

The patriotic politician is neither a poor nor a bad board member, and his presence is to be welcomed.

Sixth, and last: Among the undesirable board members is the man who half understands, and thinks he wholly understands, what his business as a board member is, and what the schools now are, and in the future ought to be. He is apt to be a meddlesome busybody in the schools. He thinks "he knows it all," and his conceit sustains his pride by giving him dogmas to support. Among the things that he thinks he knows are these, namely:—

1. That the schools are not as good as they were when he went to school.

2. That certain studies, those he enjoyed and those whose results he remembers, are the only ones worth keeping in the course of study.

3. That a tax rate higher than —— is an unwarranted outrage, irrespective of paramount public interests.

4. That the presence of certain studies, for example, Greek, or kindergarten, or woodworking, or shorthand, or "Nature," or physical training, or elocution, is an intolerable offense to common sense.

5. That the principals in all schools ought to teach all day long.

6. That the office of the superintendent is a sinecure.

7. That school sessions are too short, and that there ought to be no home study. (Or that the sessions are too long, and that there ought to be more home study.)

8. That the last year of the school course that he pursued went as far as any boy or girl ought to go, because, "No one needs to know any more." He has "succeeded without a high school (or advanced grammar school) education."

9. That there are "too many" lawyers, preachers, physicians, and teachers.

10. That all high-salaried men are overpaid.

Further, he always has an opinion ready, upon one side or the other, of every school question, however debatable it may seem to experts, and especially however much the answer ought, in the opinions of the experts, to depend upon special conditions and circumstances of the school system and community. He is sure that he knows whether or not—

1. Boys and girls ought to be taught together in all classes and in all grades.

2. Men are superior to women as school principals.

3. Women are superior to men as class teachers.

4. Female college graduates are preferable to male normal school graduates as teachers in the higher grades of the elementary schools.

5. Pensions are desirable for superannuated teachers.

6. The high school of a small city should offer a complete course in the sciences,—physiology, botany, zoölogy, biology, astronomy, geology, physics, chemistry, mineralogy, physiography,—before offering a complete course in the major languages,—Latin, Greek, French, German, Spanish; or he knows just how far each should be developed at the expense of the other.

7. Kindergartens are to be introduced and extended before or after manual training, or physical training, or summer vacation schools.

8. The salaries of the teachers are low in proportion to the salaries of the principals and supervisors.

9. It is best to lower the salary of the superintendency a thousand dollars so as to add ten dollars a year to the salary of each of a hundred teachers; or to raise it by a thousand dollars at the cost of withholding twenty-five dollars' increase from each of forty successful teachers.

10. Public educational evening paid school entertainments belong to the jurisdiction of the board or of the supervisory force.

11. It best conduces to the welfare of the community to have truants and incorrigibles compelled to attend school in the regular classes even at the cost of the interrupted order, peace, and progress of the obedient children.

12. Janitors, by their own labor or at their own expense, should thoroughly clean the school buildings each summer.

13. School buildings are best heated by steam or by hot air, and best ventilated by "plenum" or "exhaust" fans.

14. One-sided or two-sided rear-and-side lighting is best in class rooms.

15. Assembly rooms ought to be on first, second, third, or fourth floors. Or, there ought not to be any assembly rooms.

16. High and grammar school principals should give their official indorsement to school athletic games.

There is but one way to deal with this omniscient man, and that is to *teach him more*. Since he is an adult, this teaching must be done with such tact that he never suspects it. Rather, he must be led to welcome the visits of the superintendent and the various reports and letters as suggestions for him to act upon. Unless the superintendent keeps the mind of the man who knows full of new information and ideas, the man who knows will control the board, upon the principle that in a democracy we follow those just above us far more readily than those greatly superior to us. The confident man who half knows easily secures the support of the timid and of the ignorant.

Another matter of vital concern to the schools and with which the board of education in most small communities deals directly, is the selection of janitors. To the disinterested, intelligent private citizen, the principles that should govern the selection of janitors are obvious, but disinterested, intelligent citizens once upon boards of education are no longer private persons; their ideas often change radically as soon as they are in public office. These ethical and economic principles may be summarized without discussion:—

First: Every janitor ought to be a virtuous and honest man.

Second: He ought to be an intelligent man, experienced and skillful, or competent quickly to acquire skill, in all matters relating to furnaces, boilers, mechanical apparatus, walls, roofs, floors, furniture, coal, gas, applied electricity, lawns, walks, snow, rain, heat, cold, water, lighting, sanitation; in short, whatever matters concern his position as the caretaker of buildings and grounds.

Third: He ought to be well informed in matters of public law and

of municipal regulations ; he is the guardian of public property, a day and night watchman, with certain police powers.

Fourth : He ought to be of decent personal appearance and of good manners, especially in relation to the pupils.

The fact that a candidate for a position as janitor is a political party worker, even a reliable ward heeler, or even a successful ward politician, should be against him, not in his favor, for two reasons : the people will certainly misconstrue the motives that led to his selection ; and after his appointment his friends will probably force him to continue to be a party man.

Whenever the fact that a candidate is a party worker or a ward politician helps to his appointment, the community is in danger of the actual conditions in certain places where janitors sit with board members at board meetings, and the school superintendents are denied their professional rights to nominate teachers.

In one such community, besides the regular twelve months' salary, which exceeded that of the school principals, each janitor was allowed \$150 summer vacation money and as many tons of coal as his family required. Such is the topsy-turvydom that results from appointing as "employees" political "bosses."

To the school superintendent who after election finds that his board holds in saloons its informal meetings that decide everything, or that his board is too busy smoking tobacco and telling stories and making political plans to attend to the public business in hand at the regular fortnightly or monthly business meeting, or that a quorum is almost impossible to get so that one man really runs all the business affairs, some suggestions may prove helpful.

Secure, quietly if possible, forcibly if necessary, the right to attend all board meetings, and see that notice is sent as regularly to the superintendent's office as to the address of any board member.

Be prompt at all board meetings. Even when not summoned, appear.

To illustrate : In a certain community, in the week preceding his reelection at the close of his first term, a certain school superintendent

heard that his board of education was to hold a special meeting to which he had not been summoned, to approve the purchase of a certain lot immediately upon a railroad line, a lot that he regarded as entirely unsuitable for a school location, because of the noise and the danger. He went to the meeting. A resolution to purchase was offered. From the tone of the meeting, he saw that the purchase was to be carried through. He rose and said: "If this board decides to purchase that land, I shall call a public meeting. I shall write to every newspaper. I hope to be reëlected next week at a higher salary. Nevertheless, I will protest in the interests of the school children."

"Do you really mean that?" asked the chairman of the building and sites committee.

"I most certainly do," was the reply of the educator.

There was a long pause, it is said. Several minutes passed. "Then," up spoke the chairman, "if you are sincere, I will withdraw my resolution."

"I mean every word," replied the superintendent.

Whereupon the resolution was withdrawn.

Is it any wonder that this particular educator, ten years later, was in the employ of the same community, with an almost entirely changed board, at nearly twice the salary he had received at first? Yet in that community the story of this occurrence was never spread abroad.

The world is ready to recognize and to pay for sheer courage in school superintendents.

Remember that whatever the board members may think, most of the citizens really do hold the teachers (including the superintendent) responsible for the actual conditions of the schools. They know that board members come and go; they see the changes, but they see also the relative permanence of the supervisors and teachers. Moreover, in their hearts, the plain people feel that the teachers make the schools; that they can, when they wish, reform the board.

Do not deal in general politics save as a private citizen. Whether the nation, the State, the county, or the city is Republican, or Democratic, Socialist, Prohibitionist, Socialist-Labor, or Mugwump, is indeed the concern of the

school superintendent as a private citizen ; but whether it is for or against free schools, generously maintained, is his concern as the receiver and beneficiary of a large portion of the public taxes, and as the responsible manager of the costliest of all the municipal enterprises, the common schools.

One other large matter remains, namely, the appointment of the board of examiners for teachers' licenses. It may not be feasible in small communities to secure the entire service of a business man to attend to the business affairs of the schools,—the purchase of supplies and books, the erection of buildings, the making of repairs, the selection of janitors,—but it is not only feasible but also desirable, to secure a separate board of examiners to pass upon the merits of applicants for positions as teachers. This board should hold stated sessions. The all-important thing for it to do is to create impartially an eligible list of persons who may be legally appointed to teaching or supervisory positions. Only by the operations of such a board, can the body of teachers be placed upon the basis of appointment and promotion for merit.¹

The first principle relating to this board of examiners is that it should be competent. In its constitution, it should conform to the principle stated earlier in this chapter, that nowhere should laymen interfere with entrance into, or with progress in, the profession. Undoubtedly, the board of examiners should be appointed by the board of education upon the nomination of the superintendent of schools.

The second principle is that the board of examiners should be separated, as far as possible, from any special interest in the local school system. It follows that the board

¹ In Chapter III, "Administration," suggestions are offered as to rules for the government of the board of examiners. The discussion here relates only to its constitution.

should be large and varied enough to represent all interests of importance. The superintendent of schools should be chairman *ex officio* and should nominate the other members, of whom at least one should not be otherwise connected with the schools.

The third principle is that all members of the board of examiners should receive compensation for rendering a professional service. In this respect, this board is collateral with the body of teachers rather than with the board of education.

These are the ideal principles. They would result in a board of examiners constituted as follows; namely: —

First: Five in number, one appointed each year to serve five years, with the superintendent as chairman during his term of office in the superintendency.

Second: A fee of at least ten dollars to each member for each day of each stated session of the board. Of these sessions, there should be at least two annually. Necessary traveling expenses should be allowed in addition.

Third: Each member should hold as high a license as that required for any license to be issued by the board, or its full equivalent. This would result in the appointment of superintendents, supervisors, and principals in neighboring communities and of local citizens who as retired teachers or as scholarly men or women may possess or be able to secure the required license.¹

¹ For the city board of examiners, as for the State board, the requirements should be more stringent. See *Our City Schools, Their Management and Supervision*, Chapter X. As one who has visited almost every one of the 50 ranking cities of our country, and many smaller cities, and in all over 5000 different school houses, in all of which I have conversed with educators, board members, and other well-informed citizens, I am obligated to express decisively an opinion that election at large of a relatively small board, preferably at a time when no other vote is taking place, is a far better plan to choose board members than any kind of appointment by mayor, by judges of court, or by city councils. Ward election, bad as it is, secures better results in the long run than any kind of appointment. The people are safer to trust directly than any mayor, judge, or councilman, who, of course, think first of their own political welfare. The people should elect the school directors everywhere.

CHAPTER III

ADMINISTRATION

I. THE AFFAIRS OF THE BOARD

A SYSTEM theoretically good often fails for want of efficiency in its various offices and operations; and a poor system sometimes succeeds because of special efficiency in administration. A fine engine must have steam; while plenty of steam will drive a poor engine until it wrecks it. Whatever be the system, the duty of every board member and school supervisor is to drive it for all it is worth, in the meantime trying to improve it whenever opportunity is offered or can be created. The board chairman or the school superintendent whose own work is not good in a poor system will do no better when the system is theoretically perfect. The man who makes the defects of a system excuses for idleness or carelessness is the man who will expect a good system to run itself. The man who complains and dallies is the man who promises and "loafs."

The principles that should govern a school administrator are not different from those that govern the successful man of affairs. Their application, however, is special.

1. Every board of education ought to hold regular meetings. This is required by State law in every State of the Union. But it frequently happens that, for want of a quorum, a regular meeting is not actually held. Business transacted at regular meetings is always regarded with

greater confidence than business transacted at special meetings, unless these are regularly adjourned meetings, set for want of time or of adequate data at the regular monthly or fortnightly session.

2. Special meetings, called by the officers of the board, or by petition of an agreed number of members, should be avoided as much as possible. They should be called only when an emergency clearly exists, and the board should transact only the business specified in the call. Frequent special meetings impress the public in various ways, all of which are unfavorable to the school interests. They are supposed sometimes to indicate neglect of school affairs at regular meetings, sometimes to indicate a desire to avoid the usual attendance of the general public, whereby often unjust suspicions are aroused, and sometimes to indicate undue haste and insufficient consideration of the business in hand. Special meetings can be avoided usually by a little foresight. In certain seasons, when buildings are being erected, the regular meeting, when monthly, ought to be held for a time fortnightly; when fortnightly, it may sometimes become necessary to hold it weekly. Or the board can and ought to adjourn for a week or for two weeks later, thus not only affording ample notice, but perfectly securing due regularity of procedure.

3. Meetings should begin at the time set. A quorum should then be present. As soon as a quorum is present, even though the chairman or secretary is absent, or though both are absent, the meeting should be duly called by officers *pro tempore*, and the roll of members present immediately taken.

4. Theoretically, the best time for board meetings is at four o'clock in the afternoon. This permits an adjournment to the evening, when the business has not been

transacted by six o'clock, or by whatever hour may have been set for the limit of the regular session. Practically, in some communities an eight o'clock session is best. In communities where the board members are paid salaries, ten o'clock A.M. or three o'clock P.M. is a suitable hour. Undoubtedly, the practical convenience of a majority of the board is, and should be, the governing principle.¹

5. The best day in the week is usually Tuesday, then Wednesday, Monday, Thursday, in that order.

The principles involved seem to be these; namely:—

I. Committees find it difficult upon the day following the Saturday half-holiday and Sunday to close up business matters or to prepare reports. Monday is usually a very busy day for the school superintendent, and on that day he finds it difficult to prepare his reports.

II. Committees desiring to begin work promptly after the passage of a board resolution find it difficult to undertake the business Friday or Saturday morning, which means that, when possible, the board meeting should precede Thursday.

III. Monday or Friday is a sufficiently good evening to finish up committee work before a board meeting; while Thursday or Friday is a good evening to set committee work in motion.

IV. It is undesirable to have two consecutive evenings set aside for committee and board meetings.

6. A definite and regular order of proceedings should be instituted. Change in the order should be made only by unanimous consent.² The more important regular business ought to be transacted first, then the less important. Next should come the regular committee reports; next, the special committee reports; next, the superintendent's reports; last, new business. The following order is suggested for a system of a hundred teachers; namely:—

¹ In some States, only the member of the school board who performs the duties of secretary or clerk can be paid.

² By rule this change may be made by a two-thirds or four-fifths vote.

SUGGESTED ORDER OF BUSINESS

- I. Call to order and roll-call.
- II. Reading of minutes of last meeting, their correction and approval.
- III. Bills read and acted upon.
- IV. Communications read from other official governing authorities.
- V. Unfinished business.
- VI. Reports of the regular committees in such order as may be determined; as, for example: finance, buildings, instruction. Each report may be followed by action.
- VII. Reports of special committees in such order as the board chairman may decide, each to be followed immediately by action.
- VIII. Report of the superintendent of schools, followed by such action thereon as may be determined.
- IX. New business; for example: hearing local delegates or committees; receiving petitions; hearing complaints, appeals, recommendations from parents and other citizens; discussion of future policies, needs, demands.
- X. Adjournment upon motion or by order of chairman.¹

7. All minutes, corrected and approved, should be carefully transcribed in a permanent journal, and all communications filed. Journals and files increase in value with the passing years and should be preserved in fire-proof vaults or safes. All reports, written and printed, should be filed. Bills and receipts, though many years old, are sometimes financially valuable or politically important as well as historically interesting.²

8. Every decision of the board, even though apparently

¹ For rules governing parliamentary procedure, see Appendix IV.

² The powers once delegated to a superintendent must not be violated. No member, or group of members, of the board has any more right directly to interfere with the superintendent in the exercise of those powers than has any one who is not a member of the board. Only the vote of the board can properly cut off or modify the powers granted to a subordinate. The range of executive powers that a board, through its officers, committees, or members, proposes to exercise, should be very distinctly defined and never exceeded. Friction, waste of energy, bad feeling, delay, and confusion are likely to result when no one is sure whether a committee, the secretary, or the superintendent, is responsible for the execution of an order of the board.

unimportant, should be recorded in a duly written resolution passed upon vote of ayes and nays.

9. Matters should rarely be referred "with power" to committees or to the superintendent.

10. In the absence of adequate State legislation, differentiating the duties of the board and of the superintendent, the municipal board of education should draw up and pass resolutions definitely delegating to the superintendent and principals such duties and powers as it may see fit.

11. A board of education should consider as little business as possible in executive session. Whatever business is thus considered in executive session, as far as possible, should be ratified in open meeting.

There are three universal exceptions :—

I. Proposed purchases and prices of real estate should be considered first in executive session, to prevent a conspiracy or other agreement between sellers to maintain high prices. All contracts to purchase should be made in open meetings.

II. Matters involving morals, whether of teachers or of pupils, should be considered and settled in executive session, and the decisions reported privately to the persons concerned.

III. All matters relating to teachers' personal salaries, transfers, promotions, services, including parents' complaints, should be considered and settled in private or executive session, with or without later public report as the board may decide in view of the circumstances. Salary schedules may well be fixed in open session.

12. A limit should be placed upon the amounts of money that may be expended by the various committees between board meetings without the authority of contracts or of resolutions. This amount may wisely be made different for the several committees. A building committee is likely to face emergencies requiring considerably heavier expenditures than an instruction committee. The sum for emergencies need not be very large, because a board can

always be convened quickly at the time of extraordinary emergencies. Within well-determined limits, the committees ought to be empowered to draw cash from the treasurer of the school fund whenever necessary. Where the law of the State does not permit this, a committee ought to have power to incur a limited indebtedness. The clerk of a board always ought to have power to pay small bills. In certain emergencies, promises to see bills approved and paid are insufficient to get work done, and there are often board members who have no money available for a temporary loan to the school treasury. In such conditions, the officers of the board should be empowered to approve bills as a guarantee of the correctness of the expenditure. This power in an emergency will sufficiently protect the board from the dishonesty of its members. When the members of a board have not sufficient credit to secure a limited amount of services or goods under such conditions as these, surely none of them should be trusted to handle cash or to draw warrants not authorized by vote. It is doubtless true that bills for services or goods ordered and delivered under such provisions as these can be collected legally from the board of education. In communities of from five thousand to twenty thousand people, from twenty-five to a hundred dollars makes a suitable limit for the approval of bills in advance of board meetings, the amounts varying for the different committees.

Obviously, no board is compelled to ratify any emergency cash expenditures or agreements to pay. The school laws of the various States amply protect boards of education from the ill-advised or dishonest acts of any board members. No board member and no board committee can be made a legal agent for the board.¹

¹ The severe limitations of the powers of a board member are carefully set forth in Chapter II, "The Board of Education." See page 12.

The acts of the board of education may be reviewed by the courts; and injunctions, temporary and permanent, may be secured against payments even upon contract and resolution. Such are the safeguards against fraud and folly that are provided by the American legal system, which represents wisdom of a higher order than yet controls the practical operation of affairs.

13. "Dispatch is the essence of business." At the same time, "The more haste, the less speed." These apparently conflicting principles are supplementary when rightly interpreted and applied.

It is "business" to do things, to carry out plans. In such business, vigorous action, swift accomplishment, is the desideratum. This is the ordinary meaning of being busy.¹

But it is also "business" to consider plans. Of such business, ample thought is the desideratum. Thought, broad and deep, requires time. Unless sufficient time is taken, errors may be made whose correction requires more time than that originally "saved" by the haste.

No doubt "delayed justice is injustice." Often, it is as well to do things wrong as to do them late. Indeed, to do them too late is essentially not to do them at all.

A board of education ought to provide that no measures involving sums of money above certain limits, no changes in the subjects of a course of study, no removals of teachers or of janitors who have had permanent appointments, no changes in rules and regulations of the school government, or in its own order of business, are to be effected upon less than affirmative majority votes in two consecutive regular meetings, thirty or more days apart, and after reference to committee. Technically, this is called "passing upon reading."

To illustrate: November. Resolution: To purchase a site at \$2500. Moved to refer to building committee. Carried. This is "first reading."

¹ The scholar who reads books is not supposed popularly to be a busy man. School-teachers are familiar with the remark, "Since you are only reading, etc." The office man is supposed to have "an easy time," or "nothing to do," because often he is not visibly at work. To "work" is supposed to be making, changing, or shifting about real things.

December. Report of committee: To purchase at \$2500. Moved to adopt. Carried. This is "second reading." Under "rules," final "reading" laid over thirty days.

January. Under "unfinished business" or "calendar": Moved to empower officers of the board to execute contract to purchase (or to take title) at \$2500 (or some amount less). Carried. This is "third reading" and completes legislation.

The rule as to readings should not permit increasing proposed appropriations during the time that a measure is in course of passage.¹

14. An individual board member should never predict what the action of the board will be upon a given matter, or pledge his own vote for or against a proposition. No exception lies even where the board member believes that the action will be unanimous. Unquestionably, a board member has a right, even a duty, to state the policy of the board to inquiring and interested citizens, though he is under no legal obligation to do so. Unquestionably, a board member is within his rights in explaining a past action of the board (though it is not always best to do so), and even though to do so is to betray confidences and unnecessarily to wound others. He is also within his rights when he explains the grounds of his own vote.

To predict action is as unfair as to promise a vote, for it tends to bind one's associates. It is also unwise, for in the event of failure to realize the prophecy, the prophet is discredited.

To illustrate each of these situations:—

I. A board member gave his opinion that the board would undoubtedly vote to purchase at a certain price a lot upon which stood a house rented to a tenant. The lease of this tenant was about to expire. The tenant heard the prediction and moved out. It was then argued at the board meeting, in favor of the purchase of the lot, that as a matter

¹ For more technical account of "readings" consult Appendix IV, Parliamentary Rules.

The subject of executive dispatch is again considered in this same chapter, under the heading, "II. The Affairs of the Superintendent."

of politics, since the owner was a man of influence who had suffered a loss, the board must make the purchase. This was injecting a false interest, private and partisan, into a strictly public matter.

II. A board member promised his vote to a candidate for a janitorship. The committee on buildings submitted the name of another man and supported the nomination with facts that conclusively demonstrated his superiority to all other candidates. This particular board member, however, to keep his promise, voted for the other candidate, ignoring both the reasons advanced for the nominee, and also the careful consideration given the matter by his fellow-members. The unfairness of this was so obvious that it lost their support later for his own recommendations.

To pledge one's vote is to promise not to think, not to listen to other members, and not to do at the time whatever seems wise. When board members are given to making such pledges, a condition of factionalism and distrust necessarily follows that is injurious to the best interests of the schools.

The pledge of a vote by an individual board member is undemocratic because the essence of democracy is association and conference between free men. The purpose of the meeting of a board is not merely to register votes, but to determine wisely all matters in issue. A great deal of the politics in American education arises from the fact that the board members and the school men consider friendships and alliances first, and public interests second. Democracy constantly tends to purify itself of these politicians (who are usually not corrupt) by turning them out of office; but others equally misguided are very apt to secure elections.

The statement of the board's policy by a board member is a public duty. To know what that policy is, belongs of right to every interested citizen. Moreover, it is the duty of every citizen to interest himself in this vital matter. This is equally true whether the policy is general, as a policy of progress or a policy of reaction, or is specific, as a policy to develop a system of manual training or to increase the salaries of the teaching positions. But when the policy is itself in doubt, it is unfair to state anything else than the fact of doubt and the possibilities of the decision.

Explanations of the grounds of a board's action and of one's own vote belong to a different category. Every board member is a delegate, and as such is responsible to his constituents. Equally, he is an elected delegate, and as such is responsible to those citizens who voted for him. When he sees fit to do so, by his legal obligations, he is clearly justified in explaining past acts of the board and of himself. The wisdom of doing so, unless by order of the courts, is often very doubtful. The unfairness of it is often obvious.

To illustrate: It seemed necessary to discharge a certain janitor, for cause. The man had political friends who desired to know the cause. A certain board member decided to give the information, "confidentially." Results: The janitor could get no other satisfactory regular employment. His own friends then combined and secured the defeat of the only board member who "sympathized" with him. And when the next janitor offended and ought to have been discharged similarly, a majority of the board were afraid to vote to dismiss him. Such was the demoralization that resulted from an unfair and unwise disclosure of truth.

15. In all purchases of real estate, equipment, and apparatus, the interests of the future ought to be considered rather than the interests of the present. Undoubtedly, it requires greater care to discover and to determine the real interests of the future than those of the present. Similarly, the community's larger interests ought to be consulted rather than the narrower interests of the schools. The applications of this principle are many and diverse. To enforce this principle in a community's affairs is to make the community progressive by giving room and space for the energies of its people. Illustrations in the concrete abound, and may be seen in every village, town, and city of the land.

I. A board of education was offered an option of 20,000 square feet of land upon a corner at the price of \$4000, or the same plot together with side and back lots to the extent of 50,000 square feet for \$8000. The first plot meant space for a twenty-room schoolhouse, the second meant a park and playgrounds for the school. The board, under pressure from the municipal council, purchased the small plot. Within a few years, the side-lots had been built upon by house owners, and it became advisable to increase the size of the schoolhouse. Unfortunately, the lower walls of the building had not been built strong enough to sustain another story, which, however, was built. Results: Cracked walls appeared, and the schoolhouse had to be partly torn down. There now stands close upon the street a high school building, crowded with children without open-air playgrounds.

II. In that same city, a few years later, there was a demand for a six-room building where a two-room building already stood upon a narrow lot. Various plans were presented. By two years of thought and political work, the board was finally able to accomplish these things; namely: The purchase of a two-acre plot and the sale of the small lot and the erection of a twelve-room building with architectural provision for its easy and cheap extension. The schoolhouse now stands in a park of young trees with lawn and school gardens. The recent houses built in the neighborhood are better than the old. The property is the pride of the city. There is land enough, and to spare, for a fifty- or an eighty-room building, in the century to come. Men have no higher duty than to consult the welfare of later generations.

III. A certain town decided to build a new high school building. It appeared that the average number of graduates of its grammar schools was fifty annually, that the average increase in attendance was ten per cent, and that the average number in the school was one hundred and forty. By these figures, it was estimated that the total number of high school students would not exceed two hundred for ten years to come. The superintendent of schools advanced his opinion that a new and larger building would result at once in larger entering classes, and in the longer continuance of the pupils at school. The chairman of the building committee urged that provision should be made for the needs of twenty-five years to come. The board, however, voted to erect the building upon the scale of two hundred students. The building was a model of its kind, with a gymnasium and a library, as well as an assembly room and a set of laboratories. Results: The

building was filled upon the day it was opened. Within two years, half-day classes were established. Within five years gymnasium, library, assembly room, and laboratories had all been changed into class rooms with desks. The "model" high school had become a miserable, overcrowded makeshift.

The principle of giving larger consideration to the interests of the future than to those of the present is equally applicable to the smaller affairs of supplies, text-books, and repairs. An unsatisfactory text-book once adopted, unless offensively poor, may be used for many years before it is possible to change it for a better.

16. In treating school district indebtedness, a board of education owes it to the people of the future (who are to pay the debt) to provide easily but regularly for its payment.

When it becomes necessary to build a new schoolhouse, there are three courses that may be pursued. One is to levy the cost in the taxes for a year or two. This course has certain advantages. It avoids interest charges. It compels a board to be sure that the taxpayer will "stand for it." There are but few communities in which the taxpayers and their clients are not in the majority. But this course has disadvantages also. It causes irregular tax levies, a policy that disconcerts taxpayers. It tends to cause the seasons when new buildings are going up to be seasons of severe economies in all current expenses. It tends also to severe economy financially in the construction of the buildings themselves. Undoubtedly, it is a great advantage not to be paying old debts; but, in a sense, it is an ethical advantage that the buildings are paid for largely by those who in early years received instruction in them.

A second course is to bond for a term of years with or without a sinking fund. By this course, a building is paid for ten, fifteen, or twenty years after its construction, unless the debt is then refunded and continued. Meantime, until it is paid for, the building is, in a sense, hired from the bondholders, in consideration of the payment of the interest upon the bonds. To bond without a sinking fund or any other provision for payment has certain advantages. It keeps taxes down. A \$50,000 building secured for five per cent bonds costs \$2500 a year to hire, and correspondingly less when secured for four per

cent bonds. This is cheaper than hiring equal space in private properties. Low taxes often give a community an opportunity to grow in wealth so that when the bonds are due it is much easier then to provide for their payment than it would have been at the time the debt was made. The disadvantages are numerous and familiar. To bond for \$30,000 at four per cent for fifteen years, means to pay \$48,000 in all for the \$30,000. The community may not thrive. The generation then in control may feel the burden of payment very severely. The course tends to extravagance and to irresponsibility, even to corruption.

To bond with a sinking fund, increases the burden of the current expenses. There are various methods of operating sinking funds. The purpose is always to accumulate sufficient money to pay off rather than to refund the bonds at their maturity. The fund, by its own annual increase, slowly "sinks" the bonds. One method may be illustrated as follows ; namely :—

Fifteen-year bonds for	\$30,000
Annual tax for sinking fund	\$1,600
Purchase each year these or other four per cent bonds (paying premiums when necessary).	
Total purchase from tax-money	\$24,000
Interest accumulations compounded	\$6,000
Total fund at end of period	\$30,000

There are certain disadvantages in operating a sinking fund. It is often difficult to purchase bonds at a fair price. It adds considerably to the work of the treasurer of the school funds. It adds greatly to his responsibility. It has sometimes happened that part of the fund has been lost through unwise investments. The advantages are that a \$30,000 building actually costs the taxpayers, not \$48,000, but that amount less the \$6000 of interest accumulated, that is, \$42,000.

A third course is to bond, providing for the payment of the bonds in equal distribution through a period of years. By this course, only a few bonds run beyond ten or fifteen years.

To illustrate this method :—

Four per cent bonds, limit 15 years, for	\$30,000
Pay two bonds each year	\$1,000 cash
Or pay no bonds for five years, and then pay three bonds each year.	

This method accomplishes the same purpose as the sinking fund. Its great advantages are its simplicity and its avoidance of increased

responsibility and labor for the treasurer. Its chief disadvantage is that bonds for a short term of years, and in small amounts, do not command as high premiums as larger amounts for longer terms.

To illustrate : —

Thirty \$1000, 20-year four per cent bonds, sell for	1.04
Thirty \$1000, 1 to 20-year four per cent, sell (average)	1.015
Difference in premiums	\$750

On a good market, the difference in premiums for four per cent bonds of equal security, but unequal terms, often amounts to several per cent, making upon large bond issues a difference of thousands of dollars.

A variation of the "third course" in bonding is to have certain of the bonds issued fall due in a certain number of years, certain others in another certain number of years, which is equivalent to issuing, say ten 10-year bonds, five 12-year bonds, fifteen 15-year bonds. Where all bonds are issued by the city council, it may happen that such a distribution, owing to other bonds or expenses that can be foreseen, will keep the total tax rate more nearly uniform than would the redemption of an equal number of bonds every year.

In this matter of bonds, "circumstances alter cases" decidedly. But in general these are safe principles; namely : —

I. Serious increases in tax levies should be avoided.

II. Bonds should not run over fifteen or at most twenty years.¹

III. Some bonds should be paid every year directly; or a sinking fund should be established and carefully administered.

17. There remains to be considered the peculiar situation of boards of education in cities where free text-books² are supplied to all pupils, in reference to the question whether

¹ Because 30-year bonds sell at higher premiums than shorter term bonds, recent legislation favors them. It seems unfair, however, to obligate the property of people of so remote a time.

² The advantages and disadvantages of the free text-book system are discussed in Chapter VI, "The State System."

there shall be an "open" or a "uniform list." By an "open list" is meant that principals have options between various books in each subject. By a "uniform list" is meant that all schools use the same text-book in each subject.

The advantages of the "open list" are:—

1. Some texts fit the needs of certain kinds of children better than others. This is an important requirement in communities whose districts differ widely in the original races and nationalities of the people.
2. Some text-books fit the methods preferred by certain principals and teachers, while others do not and are therefore disliked.
3. An opportunity is given for experiments. In different schools, different books may be tried. The fittest books tend to survive.

The advantages of the "uniform list" are:—

1. That since pupils of all schools study the same books, transfers may easily be made without danger of "losing a grade."¹
2. Throughout the system, all teachers are tried by the same standards. The failures cannot be charged to differences in books.
3. There will be fewer experiments. No books will be placed upon the list until thoroughly examined. Consequently, there will be less money wasted upon poor books.
4. It is a great advantage to supervisors in their direction of the course of study, to follow one method.
5. One text-book in each subject, with perhaps two supplementary books for the teachers, gives a definite character to the work of every teacher and to the education of the entire community.
6. It is much easier to transfer teachers from one school to another.

In general, small, homogeneous communities do not need the "open list." Larger communities, with a heterogeneous population, may need a reasonably "open list," that is, a choice of perhaps two texts in each subject. Large cities ought to list, for supplementary use, a considerable number of the best books in each subject.

The main point is to have plenty of good reading matter available, both regular and supplementary. The best

¹ This is one of the arguments used by the advocates of "State adoptions." The argument becomes a *reductio ad absurdum* when applied to the whole nation.

school systems spend the most money for books and supplies. The higher the grade of a class, the more costly the outfit necessary for good progress.¹

18. Whatever are the nature and the organization of the governing board of the schools, and whether it be independent of the municipal council or not, it is always true that in a democracy every board of education ought to publish full and transparent reports regarding its financial affairs and its policies. The board of education that expects to secure funds for new buildings or for increased school expenditures owes it to the people to explain why it makes its requests. This does not mean that it should make such a report only when in immediate need of the money. On the contrary, a report is most needed a reasonable time before the demand arises for immediate action. The mind of the public ought to be prepared adequately beforehand.

I do not mean that the management of the school affairs should be based upon the comparative costs of other schools. A community is often justified in having heavier expenditures than prevail elsewhere. Unless some schools are better equipped than others, a competition may set in for the cheapest possible schools instead of for the best, to the ruin of American free public education. But such matters as the regularity of the growth of attendance or of an especially accelerated growth of attendance, and the increased demand of the public for higher or broader education, ought to be brought before the people by the board at such frequent intervals as to make public ignorance no plea for refusal to grant requests. From this, it is obvious that the financial skill of the board of education must not be less than that demanded in the premises. When the board of education has no members who possess this knowledge of finance, such a knowledge ought to be acquired and manifested by the superintendent of schools. For lack of knowledge of general municipal finance, the public and the town or city council have often unjustly distrusted the board.

¹ The matter of distribution of text-books is referred to upon page 101. See also Appendix V.

Particularly should the financial managers of boards of education understand the principles that determine whether proposed changes in expenditures are extravagant or really economical. This will often depend upon the relation of the local school income to that which may be derived from State funds.¹

19. Every board ought to understand the nice distinction between economy and parsimony.

An increased expenditure may be economical because it gives an improved curriculum or an improved physical condition to the schools at a cost that is justified by the very great gain. Parsimony consists in cutting expenditures to the point of injuring the schools to a degree beyond that justified by the extent of the reduction.²

The school systems vary greatly in the relative proportions of money spent for a thousand children upon salaries, text-books and supplies, and investments in buildings. These matters depend relatively upon the local conditions; but, as a general principle, it may be said that the tendency in America is to build fine school buildings and to employ cheap teachers. For the sake of expressing an opinion that may be used as a standard of criticism, I suggest the following as rational minimum financial standards per thousand children in small communities.

1. For fireproof buildings and lands . . . \$200,000 ³
2. For the pay-roll for teachers and janitors . . . \$60,000 ⁴

¹ To illustrate: It may be that the installation of manual training, despite its apparently large cost, is really economical because the State may supply most or all of the funds, and because such instruction may do away with other instruction hitherto paid for out of the local funds.

² To illustrate: In a local school there may be a principal at \$1500. A so-called economist may advocate the discharge of the principal or the installation of another principal at \$800. The result of this may be almost to ruin the discipline, and therefore the instruction, of the school. This is not economy but ruinous parsimony, and ought to be so branded by every loyal educator and board of education member. To illustrate again: \$150 a year is a low tuition charge for private schools. Yet the poorer children of the public schools need, and the nation needs for them, really better instruction than that given well-to-do children in private schools. Anything less than the \$75 recommended here is parsimony.

³ Such a number of children ought to have school grounds of at least two acres in extent and four are better.

⁴ See Chapter XVI,

3. For the expense account for all supplies, including text-books and fuel	\$20,000
4. For the incidental account, including repairs, insurance, etc.	\$5,000

II. THE AFFAIRS OF THE SUPERINTENDENT

In the present actual relation, probably in the ideal relation, of the board of education to the superintendent, the head of the schools, as administrator, is primarily and essentially a servant of the board.¹ This is not true of the superintendent as supervisor.²

1. The first principle of administration in any office is to deal with matters in the order of their relative importance. This requires insight and judgment. It involves also understanding of the personalities concerned. It may be taken as "evidence of proof" that a man who can hold the same office through a series of years, or who can go from one office to another and another of equal or greater importance, has both insight and judgment. When he can stay in the same community and secure successive increases of salary through a term of years, it is almost certain that he understands the relative importance of affairs.

To illustrate the principle: Monday morning with a heavy mail. There is no office secretary. Superintendent due to attend special exercises at a distant school at eleven o'clock. Unexpectedly the chairman of the board arrives for a consultation. A distinguished school superintendent from another community is due at one o'clock.

The other superintendent will help make or mar the local reputation as well as the general.

The exercises are public.

¹ In this latter relation, he is consulting and advising attorney. In supervision, he is an educator and ought to have independent powers. See page 10, *infra*.

² See Chapter V, "The Superintendent." The general purpose of this chapter is to set forth principles. See Chapters I and II.

The board chairman is an important officer.

The mail is important.

The superintendent is new to the position.

If the superintendent excuses himself to open his mail and to dispose of it, the chairman may think that he is systematic; also, the chairman may think that he does not care much for board officers. The superintendent must not fail to be on hand at the exercises, for the parents are invited to hear and to meet him. He cannot return to his office for mail while the visitor is on hand.

To grip and to hold the chairman may mean success: new and better schoolhouses, new and better teachers, new and better everything, and reëlection.

A man with the gift of an administrator will welcome the board chairman, calmly stow all the apparently important mail in his pocket, and sit down to consult the board chairman until the last minute before the time for leaving for the school exercises. When that time arrives, and not until then, he will invite the chairman to go with him. If the member cannot go, he will make an early engagement with him, as early as possible without breaking the appointment of the visiting superintendent. He will read his mail when he can, on the theory that matters of really imperative importance are very seldom transacted by mail.

2. The second principle is memory. A competent administrator remembers what he has ordered, what he has planned, what his engagements are, who his subordinates are, even the candidates for positions. He remembers also all politicians, all present and all former board members on sight; their opinions and actions. He is interested in personalities.

To forget persons or duties upon only a few occasions is often to ruin all prospects of permanent success. Subordinates distrust a man who does not remember their remarks to him. Every superintendent must understand that the three-minute talk of a subordinate with him may be an important event to the subordinate influencing the course of his life. The superintendent's memory of all board resolutions and discussions, and of all school laws ought to be perfect. Lapses in memory tend to contradictions in orders; and such contradictions promote confusion.

3. The third principle is dispatch.

A certain very successful school superintendent made it a rule of his life never to go to his office when not perfectly able to transact business correctly and at top speed. He was really something of an invalid. His rule sometimes kept him out of his office almost entirely for days at a time. Upon such days, he "sauntered" about the schools and made it a rule to say very little. He soon won the reputation of "wasting no time" and of "making no mistakes." Yet upon days when he felt well, he found time for long conferences with teachers and parents and politicians. He handled mail with extreme rapidity, and gave orders and opinions immediately. Only those who knew the facts intimately knew that he suffered from ill health.

The secret of dispatch is not to debate and to discuss when there is nothing at issue, but to take up the business at hand and to decide promptly where there is anything at issue. The successful administrator never beats back upon his own trail. What is done, is done. The past may afford light, but it cannot offer leading. Debate is academic; decision, practical.

No doubt injustice is sometimes done, no doubt a mistake is occasionally made. But the man who by caution wins battles, by the very delay often loses the campaign.

4. The fourth principle is courtesy, graciousness, desire to be kind and to do kindness.

This charity, *χάρις*, is not love alone, but also the appearance of it. The successful administrator in any office must be supremely kind, must be conscious of kinship with all other men. Beware of the apparently successful administrator who counsels otherwise. He is not likely long to remain a school superintendent.

This graciousness is a quality that reveals itself often despite uncouth manners and an ugly face. It is useless to try to assume it when dealing with those whom one sees frequently. "I liked him the first time," said a certain teacher, "but the second time I saw through him, and now I hate to meet him." Such is the saving power of intuition.

Poverty of communities alone accounts for the survival of ungracious superintendents. This supreme quality of grace has very little to do with morals. Because of very pride in their righteousness, some good men lack brotherly kindness.

5. The fifth principle of successful administration is foresight. To lay railroad tracks into the future is a chief concern of the successful administrator. His plans run far ahead. And beyond his plans, run his estimates of future facts and needs.

To illustrate: A new board member decided to arrive at a knowledge of what that "useless supernumerary," the school superintendent, really had to do, and spent a day with that officer. When the day was over, among other things he said, "You live in the future." This was true.

A school superintendent must estimate the future growth of attendance in the schools, the necessary increase in the number of teachers, the decline of attendance in certain districts through change in nature of population, the need of new schools, codifications in courses of study, and the prospects of change in board members.¹

6. The sixth principle of good administration is to be systematic and methodical. To be systematic is to have organized plans and to be regular in carrying them out. The poetic genius whose nights and days go by in ecstasies and spasms does not long succeed and survive in any administrative office. To be methodical is to develop ways and means for carrying plans forward to realization.

System and method are not to be judged by external signs only.

To illustrate: A certain school superintendent reads all his earliest morning's mail carefully and answers within a day all of it that deserves

¹ Those who object to the interest of educators in the complexion of their boards, fail to observe the principle, "Put yourself in his place." That interest ought to be solely for the educational welfare of the community, and not in the least for the personal welfare of the superintendent.

answer. All the rest of the mail is allowed to accumulate to be sifted over when opportunity offers. Papers and school reports are allowed to accumulate also. At certain times, one might suppose that everything was in the height of disorder; but there never is real disorder. Every week his secretary clears up everything, filing what is important, and throwing away the rest.

The city school superintendent who in the present age attempts personally to read all of his mail, to see all of his visitors, and to transact all of the business that comes to his office, without a secretary or with one, will never find time to visit schools and to hold teachers' meetings. A good administrative system involves neglect of the less important in order to deal thoroughly with the more important.

7. The seventh principle of successful administration is courage, the courage of the strong heart, the definite will, the clear and wise head. Courage is half of every battle, and fortitude the rest. It is well to be courageous even in the unessential so as to keep in training for the time when courage is demanded for success in things essential.¹

To illustrate: A school superintendent was urged by his instruction committee to choose between two candidates for a certain position. Not feeling assured which was the better, he threw the choice back upon the laymen, who misunderstood his indecision of mind for cowardice of heart. He was never afterward asked to make a choice. He had thereby abnegated the first right of the superintendency, the right to select those by whose results he himself was certain to be judged. He refused to make the choice because he feared his own judgment. Such a man cannot be a superintendent in reality. The courageous do not long remain clerks; the timid can be nothing else.

It is a misfortune that the tendency of the narrow, traditional, free common education is to make school superintendents of men who are inclined to let others decide for them. Their judgments are not only poor, but are also timidly advanced. No stronger argument can be adduced for a broad, progressive education than that it trains the judgment and quickens the self-reliance of the students.

¹ See James, "Psychology," chapter upon "Habit and Will." Therein is presented a fine argument.

8. In the present condition of American free common education, the next principle of a sound business administration by a superintendent — namely, to trust subordinates wisely but sufficiently — is very difficult to carry out.

Every school superintendent who has over twenty-five or thirty teachers needs at least one secretary, who may or may not be a stenographer and a bookkeeper. To this secretary or office clerk may be assigned these duties; namely: —

I. To be in the office when the superintendent is out of it, so as to be able to answer the questions of visitors and telephone calls, and to tell where the superintendent may be found.¹

II. To open the mail and to record and file bills and other documents of value, some of which should go immediately to the clerk of the board of education.

III. To write by dictation most of the correspondence, thus saving the more valuable time of the superintendent so that he may supervise the schools by actual visitation. The letters can be written when the superintendent is out of the office and can be looked over and signed upon his return.

IV. To manifold examination and test papers, rules and regulations, notices of meetings, and general directions.

V. To serve as messenger upon various errands.

VI. To verify the contents of packages of books and supplies, and to approve or disapprove bills, upon reference of any discrepancies to the superintendent.²

Similarly, the school superintendent should turn the conduct of details over to the principals and supervisors.

Many otherwise good superintendents fail in this respect. "We cannot do two things well at once," and "One nail drives out another,"

¹ No public school system can be brought up to the modern standard unless all of the schools are connected by telephone lines with the office of the superintendent. A telephone for immediate conferences between supervisors and principals is more important than a typewriter for correspondence, and saves much time and many mistakes. Often prompt information permits, even insures, prompt action, the value of which may be very great.

² This duty belongs in the largest cities to the special department of the board of education, and in cities of medium size to the office of the clerk of the board of education. But in the smaller school systems it comes more or less within the administrative province of the school superintendent.

are maxims that every administrator ought to observe by giving details to others.

9. It is a sound principle of good school administration to mean to neglect nothing. Undoubtedly, the best administrators do neglect much; but this is only for want of time, not from carelessness. The very details that are turned over to others must be kept within the vision; and to them attention must occasionally be given to see that the subordinate does not neglect them. It may indeed be said that the most successful administrators are those who least neglect details. However, it will invariably be found that such administrators employ very competent subordinates.

The special weakness to-day is not in the class rooms, but in the offices of the principals, supervisors, and superintendents. Promoted as most of them are after long service in the ranks, most supervising officers care too much about details. On the other hand, some supervisors fail for want of sufficient knowledge of details. One of the reprehensible practices of economical boards is to make young college graduates without experience principals of schools.

A good school superintendent keeps himself in touch with every part of his work. The day that some teacher says, "The superintendent seems to know nothing about my work in Grade II arithmetic or physical training," that day the superintendent may arrive and discuss the matter with knowledge at least adequate to satisfy the requirements of the teacher.

10. The next principle of a good school administrator is "to be no respecter of persons." He is indeed a respecter of board members because they hold governmental power, not because they are rich or influential as private

citizens. He is a respecter of parents because he is the shepherd of all their children. But a good school superintendent proceeds impartially in the conduct of all his public business. He retains no poor teachers, however near they may be to himself as friends, however strong they may be in the politics of a ward or of a church. He makes war for his schools to get all their enemies out of positions in which they can do the schools harm, knowing that to injure the schools is to reduce society to lower levels. He consults truth and justice, not expediency. He uses expediency as a means to effect the ends of truth and justice, but never considers untruth or dishonesty expedient for any cause.

He is neither cruel nor unwisely kind. From pity, he is not misled into injustice to the school children and youth intrusted to his care. The poor girl who is "only a high school graduate" but wishes to teach so as to help her widowed mother, the girl who is indeed often with us, touches his human sympathy. He is ready to help her to go to normal school or to college ; but he will not help her to the harm of others. The man who has failed as a lawyer or minister or mechanical engineer and who is now anxious to teach, finds the presumption of the superintendent against him rather than for him. The youth just out of college, who desires to teach for a year or two, so as to save some money for a start in a law school, does not interest the school superintendent sufficiently to permit him to make of a high school position a "stepping-stone to higher things,"¹ unless it be to the higher things within the profession of teaching, such as postgraduate courses, or better positions. To the competent and faithful school superintendent there is nothing higher than education, though at the present time there

¹ This was not always so. The Egyptian priesthood which ruled so many millenniums until the warrior Syrians invaded and conquered the land, was a teaching profession. Herbert Spencer is quite wrong in assigning to the clergy as priests the origin of all the professions. That origin was in the clergy as teachers. From teaching, all professions have been differentiated since man became man. From teaching, renewed day by day, all professions are now created. This age, too, will pass ; and teaching will return to its own as the mother, the foster-mother, of all the arts and sciences, the nurse of all wisdom. Jesus was a teacher. Every great leader of men has been essentially a teacher.

are several other professions that "pay" better than teaching. The school superintendent forwards no man's interest, no woman's cause. He has never any other end in view than the good of the pupils in his schools and the welfare of humanity. He constantly searches his mind and his soul that nothing else enter in. Otherwise, a school superintendent betrays a sacred trust.

II. A competent administrator administers wisely his own time. Probably he decides that he must visit at least one school each day, must conduct so many teachers' meetings each month, must have such and such office hours, must prepare such and such reports, must do so much studying that the reservoir will have at least as much inlet as outlet, must set aside such and such times for teachers to consult him freely, must give a certain amount of time to calls upon board members, and must attend to the mail and go to the office with regularity.

By way of suggestion some such program as this is mapped out:—

REGULAR WEEKLY ROUTINE

Monday, Wednesday, and Friday: Office from 8 to 10 A.M.

Tuesday and Thursday: Visit schools from 9 A.M. to 12 M.

Monday, Tuesday, and Thursday: Office from 3 to 4 P.M.

Friday: Office hours reserved for teachers, from 3 to 5 P.M.

Wednesday: From 12 M. throughout day, remain at home for study.

Tuesday and Thursday evenings: Committee meetings. Calls on business upon board members and other officials.

REGULAR MONTHLY ROUTINE

One Thursday each month visit schools of other municipalities.

Two Tuesdays each month at 4 P.M., principals' meetings.

Two Tuesdays for other regular meetings with teachers.

All grade meetings and all faculty meetings will avoid Tuesday so that the superintendent may at his option and convenience come to such meetings.

One afternoon and evening, at least, set aside for preparation and attendance at the regular monthly meeting of the board of education.¹

In addition, the superintendent provides for his mail, unless absent from the city. He provides also for the systematic preparation of bulletins for teachers, consultation with supervisors, and review of reports sent to parents.

Such, in mere outline, is a tentative suggestion of routine duties. In addition, the competent administrator keeps clearly in mind his duties that are not routine. Among these are committee meetings, more or less irregular, reports to special and regular committees, statistics and statements and correspondence for the public press, investigation and consideration of parents' complaints, pupils' truancies and other misdemeanors, enforcement of compulsory education laws, changes in State laws, teachers' licenses, appointments, transfers, promotions, discharges, changes in text-books, modifications of courses of study, evening free school and free public lecture affairs, entrance requirements for college, the meetings of teachers' associations of county, State, and nation, and in special cases, advising pupils on their affairs of business or of further study when about to leave school.

Besides this public work, there is a great deal of optional work that is professional yet partly private as well as public, such as writing papers for educational associations,² and articles for educational publications.

12. The last principle of sound administration includes punctuality, promptness, and reliability. To meet appointments, to do things on time or ahead of time, to do what is requested or expected: this is character. Fortunately, in this respect most school administrators excel, as they do in system and method.

¹ An actual experience in the schools of six different States, viz. Ohio, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Nebraska, New York, and New Jersey, and an acquaintance with men in nearly every State in the Union, unite in constraining me to say plainly to all persons who think of undertaking to become school superintendents, that the work is quantitatively heavy. No man can succeed in it who cannot work easily and comfortably twelve of the fourteen hours from 8 A.M. to 10 P.M. and keep a measure of health while so doing two hundred days in the year, and put in from five to eight hours' daily work one hundred days more. This is the minimum time required for the distinctly public work of any successful superintendent known to me in any community with forty or more teachers.

² The general public is in error in supposing that such papers are of pecuniary profit. Very few speakers or writers upon educational topics receive any compensation therefor. It is customary to repay traveling expenses.

Every one of these principles is essential to a great success in school administration.¹

In the course of a lifetime of service even the successful superintendent meets with an occasional serious reverse.² Upon such occasions most men in the superintendency go down never to reappear as heads of school systems. The ablest men in the profession do not tell much about their defeats, but the principles of their action and conduct at such times may be seen. The strong man can do more for school progress with a bare majority facing a hostile minority than with a unanimous board. Very likely he has made enemies (not to say opponents) because of his very strength. In the man who is successfully riding out the storm may be seen coolness, composure, self-reliance, and an apparent frankness that hides a real reticence. He, not the weaker man who at such a time would resign, is the one who in the reaction to come can do most for the schools. That will be a fortunate day for American education when to resign in the face of defeat will be taken as an admission of error, not as an assertion of superior merit, as it is now frequently supposed to be. The educator, like the lawyer and the doctor, should go to a community meaning to find his life work there. It is the men of long tenures who are doing the great construction work in the superintendency.³

III. THE AFFAIRS OF THE PRINCIPAL

The duties of the principal and the plan of the administration of a school growing out of those duties are created

¹ For their application to supervisors and principals, see Chapters VI and VII.

² One superintendent once said to another, "I never asked my board for anything that I did not get." To this the other replied more shrewdly than politely, for he knew the facts, "And what did you ever ask for?"

³ This can hardly be taken too broadly. It is seldom best for the man himself to make a change and seldom best for the community. There may be exceptions, but the principle stated in the text is the right standard of action.

and governed by the relations sustained by the principal. As a general fact in American communities, principals of schools have been longer in the particular office than the superintendent. In short, the superintendent inherits most of the principals together with most of the teachers. From this fact, friction not infrequently results, and can be remedied only where the superintendent is a man of distinctly higher ability and broader scholarship with a stronger personality than the principals.

The relations of the principal are with the superintendent, the supervisors, the board of education, the parents, the children, and lastly, with the community generally.¹

The first administrative feature of the position of the principal is that he is conspicuously before the public as the educator. He holds a permanent position and is brought into daily and constant contact with parents. His first object, therefore, should be to sustain harmonious relations between the school and the home, that is, between the teachers and the parents and the children. To this object he should give his primary attention. Consequently, he should regard the calls of parents at the school, and of himself and his teachers at the home, as matters of paramount importance. So long as the American public school is public, that is, open to all visitors, this publicity is for the principal its chief feature. Nothing in a school system causes more trouble than for a principal to be disagreeable or tactless in dealings with the parents who send children to school and with the children themselves.

The first principle in dealing with these adults is to give them adequate time to state the cause of their visit when the cause is to present a complaint. In a sense, the

¹ In the chapter upon "The Principalship" these relations are fully discussed.

principal is judge, jury, and executioner, in such cases, for few parents are inclined to appeal to the superintendent or to the board of education. A full hearing and an impartial decision are, therefore, requisite.

The next matter that should concern the principal in his dealings with parents is to try to bring them to as favorable an opinion of the school as possible. It may, indeed, be said that a school is popular or not, in the degree in which the principal of that school is popular. This popularity does not by any means involve the surrender of the fundamental principles of education. On the contrary, it depends almost entirely upon the display by the principal of a knowledge of the foundation elements. Besides appearing to be what he ought to be, an educator, the principal should be very courteous in all dealings, thoroughly polite, not merely by disposition but also in manner.

The third relation of the principal, in the order of its importance, is his, or her, relation to the teachers. This should be manifestly a relation of help rather than of criticism; that is, the purpose of the criticism should be help. The average American teacher in school systems with principals is a young woman who needs help. Sometimes she does not know this fact, but generally she is all too conscious of it, and therefore very sensitive. On the other hand, the average principal is a person of mature years and therefore enabled by experience to give help.

The fourth relation of the principal is to the board of education. This relation must be taken as official rather than personal. It is to the body of men charged by law with oversight of the principal's duties regarding the management of the school.

To illustrate: In town and city school systems where there is a free text-book list, the principal is the person on whom must fall most of the

duties with regard to recommending, securing, and distributing the text-books, the stationery, and the other supplies.

In the performance of the duties growing out of these relations, the principal should be prompt, methodical, and explicit. In the office of the superintendent and of the clerk of the board of education, those principals secure good reputations whose work is done with regularity. They are known as reliable men and women.

Promptness is almost equally important. The principal who executes an order immediately upon receiving it is the one who is known as efficient.

To illustrate: In a school system with five, or twenty-five, or fifty principals, there are always some who are laggards. When a board of education issues a resolution, there are always some who cannot find time to carry out its requirements until a week or two has passed after all the others have accomplished its directions. Such principals are not the ones for whom the board of education is enthusiastic in making an effort to raise salaries, to strengthen tenure, or to secure pensions when disabled.

Fifth: In these business affairs, the principal who makes the fullest and the clearest reports is the one who renders in that respect the most satisfactory service. There are always some principals in every school system whose work is better in this respect than the superintendent or the board of education expect.

To illustrate: In a certain school system, the board of education desired to get information regarding the ages of all the school children. One principal made an extremely valuable report by dividing all the children up into sexes, nationalities, and grades, and by showing as a result that the male children of certain nationalities averaged younger in grade than any other children, while the female children of another nationality supplied the greatest proportion of those whose progress was retarded. Further analysis of this same report showed that all the girls of this nationality were doing heavy domestic work at home and were therefore too tired to do their school work well.

The main quality required of principals¹ for the proper and successful performance of their duties is that composite quality commonly known as thoroughness. It must be remembered that the principal is the pillar of the arch of a modern school system, — fortunate is that community which has good principals in all its schools. Especially fortunate is that school system in which, in every school, there is a competent principal without the additional obligations of a regular full day class teacher.

Occasionally, a very serious question as to the powers of the board and of the superintendent or principal may arise. Legally, in most States all the real power is in the board. Customarily, much of the power is really exercised by the superintendent and principal. To illustrate: A high school principal refused to obey the resolution of the board to grant a diploma to a certain pupil, who was forced to take the document unsigned by the educator. He contended (and public opinion supported him) that whatever the law might be, the signatures of the officers of the board were effective merely as certifying to the authority of the principal in the high school. Again: In the absence of any resolution and between board meetings, the superintendent in an emergency, to protect a principal, suspended two insubordinate teachers and transferred three who were disloyal. At the following board meeting, factions developed, and by a narrow majority his order was revoked and he himself censured; to all of which he replied, "I have no legal authority to do anything, but to-morrow I shall exceed my authority as usual." It is certainly an anomalous position to be required to produce results and yet to have absolutely no legal powers. Here, as everywhere, the safe principle is to obey public opinion, which is stronger than any board that undertakes to oppose the dictates of sound common sense. When education has won the recognition necessary for it to do its work, as civilization requires, the legal authority of educators will be fairly commensurate with our responsibilities.

¹ For a more detailed discussion of the principal, see Chapter VII, *infra*, and *Our City Schools*, Chapter III.

CHAPTER IV

SUPERVISION

THERE are several differences between a very poor school system and a very good one. I state them not in the order of their importance but in their historical order of causation. In their order of importance, by far the greatest of the differences is in the teaching, that is, in the quality of the teachers. Yet no city can transform itself immediately from a poor educational condition to a good one by revolutionizing its teaching body. It cannot do this because it never knows how to do it, and it is never willing to do it. Further, if a city with a hundred poor teachers, worth, say, two hundred and fifty dollars a year each, should suddenly decide to get a teaching force worth eight hundred dollars a year as an average per teacher, it would not know how to get such teachers. Who would select them? Who is to select a competent superintendent who, in turn, will select competent subordinates?

The historical order in which good schools are secured is a zigzag, like all progress, and is as follows; namely:—

Money (more of it and more wisely expended).

Supervision (more and better).

Money (more, etc.).

Administration (better).

Teaching (better, and more of it).

Money (more, etc.).

Course of study (broadened and improved).

Money (more, etc.).

Text-books (more and better).

Money (more, etc.).
Buildings (better).
Money (more, etc.).
Equipment (more, and better).
Money (more, etc.).
Then repeat.
Continue to repeat to the end of time.

The initial movement, more money, and a desire for better conduct of the schools, must come from the people. Unless there is a substantial and a spontaneous effort by the community to get better schools, there can be found no way for any individuals, whether private citizens or public officeholders, to secure for the community better schools.

The history of progress is frequently this: —

The people become conscious of the fact that they want better schools, and they propose to get a better school superintendent. To this end, they select a new board of education. After two or three years, the board becomes an anti-present-incumbent board and discharges the incumbent. It then tries to find a better school superintendent. Meanwhile, the people begin to talk about "spending more money for the schools, if necessary." This is said very quietly, but it is meant strongly. When the board has been wise enough to recognize among the candidates the man who is really better than the former superintendent, progress begins. The people back the progressive man.¹

In the good superintendent, skill in supervision is more important than ability in administration.² One is art, the other is power. Supervision is professional; administration is universal. Supervision is an educational matter,

¹ The power of the superintendent who has the support of the parents is invincible. See Chapter V, "The Superintendent."

² The subject of administration is dealt with in Chapter III, "Administration."

a specialty; administration is business management, an executive quality. Supervision is an acquirement; administration is largely a native quality. More superintendents, supervisors, and principals fail in their administrative than in their supervisory duties. A greater percentage of men fail in business than in any of the professions. It is not true that the ability to administer well cannot be acquired, but must be native; yet it is true that it is extremely difficult to acquire. The matter of supervision is scarcely as much a matter of ability as of knowledge used wisely and skillfully. There are many men "born" to administer affairs, there are none "born" to supervise schools.¹

Before discussing supervision as such, it is necessary to dispose of prejudices, to the effect that supervising officers, whether superintendents, principals, or supervisors, are higher than teachers. They are not necessarily higher in character, ability, energy, or scholarship, though they usually receive more money. In the present economic regime, we talk of "compensation," weighing out money, that is, material things, over against spiritual ideas. It is well for educators, who always are the dispensers of culture, and who often are and always ought to be the leaders of thought, to consider carefully this matter of the relations of supervisors and class instructors.

No doubt our nation is, in a sense, recapitulating the histories of most other nations. In a sense, our democracy

¹ We are seeing in this age many conspicuous instances in the second and third generations of the rich that go to prove the difficulty, yet the practical certainty, of the possibility of learning how to administer great properties. "From shirt sleeves to shirt sleeves in three generations" is no longer true. To avoid it, train the sons (and daughters) to business, year after year, until they acquire the ability to manage property. To make a good city superintendent, use good general native ability, a thorough general education, some special training, a few years in the class room, a few years more in the principalship, and half a dozen in a small superintendency. Thus, nine times out of ten, at thirty-five or forty years of age, the successful superintendent is made.

may even now be in process of transformation into a feudal State by reason of its economic social relations. Unquestionably, some of our business leaders are now working to that end. But the fancy of others that we are to become, not an industrial feudal State, but a communistic State, has quite as many facts for its support. Trades unionism, if successful, can result only in giving all workers equal livings, and in making the State¹ the owner of all wealth-producing property.

This matter concerns educators personally and also as the builders of the nation. A very important reason why competent superintendents cannot accomplish more in their management of schools is because of the proper dislike of authority felt by all teachers. In these pages, I have necessarily used the words "superior" and "subordinate." There is no other way to express the relations of superintendent, principal, and class teacher. But it is only in a certain respect that the principal is subordinate to the superintendent and superior to the class teacher. This respect is administrative and supervisory, not necessarily intellectual and moral, as will appear upon consideration.

The consciences of our forefathers, upon their awakening to the great democratic ideas of liberty, equality before the law, and opportunity for all, knew that public intelligence is essential to the preservation of free institutions. Whatever is done by reason of instinct or of conscience is likely to be done without full knowledge of the real needs to be met and of the ways to meet them. When democracy decreed the free school for all children, it failed at first to discern that the school must be not only free but compulsory, not for children only, but for youth also. Democracy saw at first only the teacher in the class room

¹ I use the word here in its meaning in political science, covering all forms of government.

with the children, and long failed to see the teacher in course of preparation, the teacher being assisted to reach all children, the teacher being wisely selected and set to giving instruction in the most important matters.

Here supervision enters in, creating the normal school, securing State legislation for compulsory education, selecting the teacher, and arranging the course of study. Here supervision defines its own function: "I am the intermediary between the schools and democracy. I see and tell the truth about the education of individuals. I persuade society to seek its largest good."

The forces of capitalism may be tending to make a society that will illustrate a social geometry of the vertical plane,—an aristocracy above, in the middle the classes, and the masses beneath. People are already talking of the grades, high and low, of individuals, of families, of occupations and professions. We people of the schools are ourselves talking after this fashion, disputing whether teacher, instructor, educator, educationist, supervisor, or superintendent be the term highest in dignity, discussing whether principal or supervisor be entitled by rank to higher "pay."

On the other side of modern society, the forces of labor are warring to make a society of the horizontal plane. "All men are created equal," says the great Declaration. Therefore, let all men in all respects be equal, taking orders from none, giving orders to none, deciding everything by majority vote. Some of us in the schools are engaged in this war (it may be unwisely), urging the creation of councils of teachers to supplement superintendents and principals, trying to make these officers, who are only now escaping from being clerks of the boards of education, in part at least, clerks for the teachers.

This warfare of the vertical and horizontal planes, of feudalism and of communism, is renewing and improving our democracy. It generates a social geometry of the sphere, which has neither top nor bottom; which has, indeed, no levels. No one can turn this democratic social universe upside down because we are all inside of it. We do not know where the center of it is; we cannot locate its axis of rotation. All that we do know, or can know, is that the groups of the various communities, of the various social institutions, of the various vocations and avocations, form, as it were, separate solar systems, different vortices within the stellar spaces.

In this social universe, the teacher of the class room is nearer the home and the parent than is the teacher in the office, but is not so near to the government and the politicians. No one knows which is higher in rank and dignity, or which serves his day and generation more and better. We know that, in the economic vertical plane, the superintendent has the larger income of material goods. This is so, however, not because he is higher as a teacher, but solely because he is supposed to have administrative ability, which, being highly valued in the world of business, is not abundant in the educational market.¹

It may be answered that the ability to teach is equally rare. This may be true, but the superintendent is supposed to have both the ability to teach and the ability to administer affairs. He is a school system manager, that is, supervisor, teacher, and administrator, all combined harmoniously.

As administrators and supervisors, the superintendent and the principal are set in authority over the teachers. As teachers, however, their relation with the class teachers has no trace of authority. It is this feature

¹ See Chapter XVI, "Salary, Tenure, and Certificate."

of the superintendency that has confused many communities and indeed whole States.

To illustrate: In a certain city the school superintendent, who desired to give some information regarding a candidate for a teaching position, was ordered out of the board with these words, "Go back to the schools where you belong." Similarly, at a certain public meeting in another community, a school superintendent who had become very influential in all public affairs, was angrily addressed by a fellow-citizen as follows: "Get out of here. Teachers have no business to try to boss us. You stay with your children." In each case, the superintendent was evidently regarded simply as the equal of all other teachers; he was not looked upon as supervisor and administrator. There are only a few American communities in which many citizens do not suppose, "of course," that the superintendent goes to school when the children do and goes home when they do, and has all the school holidays and vacations for recreation. In the degree in which a teacher is solely an instructor and in which a principal or a superintendent is solely an inspector of classes, in that degree he is at school only when the children are.

It is an educational tendency in these times to exalt the supervisory duties of the superintendency and of the principalship and to debase the administrative. This is a healthful reaction from the conditions of the period when superintendents and principals spent their days in their offices, making examination papers and writing reports. The office superintendent is not directly superintending classes, but administering affairs. He is issuing orders, not getting direct information, and in person making direct suggestions and giving direct help. The tendency now is to praise the man who lives with the children because, by logical inference, he loves them. This is the superintendent who is a magnified teacher, and therefore easily comprehended by most laymen, who, being themselves mechanics and clerks, cannot comprehend the functions of

administrators, and who, in their childhood days, saw teachers often and the superintendent only when he visited their class rooms as a supervisor.

The hope of good schools in America lies in preserving the two diverse qualities, the supervisory and the administrative, the professional and the business, in the one superintendent. Yet it should be said, "If a small city must choose, let it take a man who is a good supervisor first," for administrative ability is of less importance. Only men of genius are equally good as supervisors and as administrators. Rather let the board of control in the city that needs a new school superintendent decide which qualities it needs more, the administrative or the supervisory.

To be explicit: The superintendent who is stronger as an administrator than as a supervisor will present new results more quickly even in the strictly educational matters, — the course of study, the improvement of the teaching force, the changes in text-books, — and will improve the discipline, *morale*, and *esprit de corps* more positively. He will concern himself about new buildings, sanitation, repairs, school appropriations, teachers' salaries, political relations, and similar half-professional, half-business matters. He will effect the revolution speedily. But it may not be quite the revolution desired.

He is the sort of man to be taken (when no genius appears) by communities in these conditions; namely: —

I. The community with very poor schools that has suddenly aroused itself and desires immediate reform.

II. The community with many schools and an extended course.

III. The community that has great and peculiar difficulties, such as partisanship upon the board, very low appropriations, poor school attendance with many trancies, factory employment of children under the school age limit, religious controversies in the community, schools under extremely diverse conditions, local schools without competent supervising principals,¹ poor school accommodations.

IV. The community that desires immediate advertisement as having exceptionally good schools.

¹ See Chapter VI, "The Principalship."

The man who is stronger as an administrator than as a supervisor is the man for such communities. What communities ought to select the man who is stronger as a supervisor than as an administrator will appear after a careful consideration of what supervision, philosophically reviewed, really is, and what in its practical applications it ought to be.

1. Supervision is overseeing. It is standing upon the height and looking across to the horizon. It is taking a broad view, the general view, and seeing the back and middle grounds as well as the foreground with its details. It is knowing that the school is within the community, and observing its area and limitations. It is comprehending that free common education is but one great form of the activities of the nation, the form that prepares for all other worthy activities, and that wars against all unworthy activities. Good supervision is never petty, but always generous in aim, in extent, and in nature.

2. Supervision is "overlooking" in a humorous sense. The good supervisor is always charitable. He is able to neglect details in the interest of the whole. A mere detail has no right to be made into a "stone of stumbling" and "a rock of offense." The good supervisor thinks very often of the thirteenth chapter of a great teacher's letter to his coworkers at Corinth. For good supervision "suffereth long and is kind, is not puffed up, is not easily provoked, thinketh no evil, endureth all things, never faileth." It is far better to tolerate small deficiencies than to make a great enemy.

This principle is especially applicable to those well-regulated school systems in which at the end of the second year of successful teaching or successful service as principal or supervisor, the incumbent receives a permanent

appointment. There and everywhere a good supervisor realizes that far more can be accomplished by encouraging the good and suggesting the better, than by denouncing the bad, the weak, and the foolish.¹ Sometimes he must remove error, but he always does it in such a kind manner and with such sincere frankness that no possible dislike can follow with cause.

3. Supervision is insight. It is keen vision that looks into the heart of men, women, children, and affairs, and sees truth. Good supervision aims at truthfulness. The good supervisor never blinks at facts, never swallows statements whole, lest he be fed upon fictions. Good supervision is systematic and scientific observation of realities. It utilizes parents' complaints, teachers' meetings, rumors, as the clues to investigations. A good supervisor is often silent about the facts he knows. Truthfulness is not necessarily truth-telling, truth-emptying-ness. Truthfulness is knowing the truth, and sincerely utilizing that knowledge. A good supervisor is hungry for facts by which to inform himself correctly and adequately, rather than to expose to the world the errors and deficiencies of colleagues, who, whatever their deficiencies, are generally as earnest as himself.

4. Supervision is vision in the old and beautiful sense of seeing things invisible. "And their old men shall dream dreams and their young men shall see visions." Blessed is the community in whose schools are old men and women, who as teachers still dream dreams of earthly paradises, and young men and women who have learned to see visions of golden heavens. "The new heaven and the new earth" come only for those and by those whose spiritual life is quick and strong.

The good supervisor, knowing the real, works for the

¹ See Chapter XVI, "Salary, Tenure, and Certificate."

ideal. Neither he nor his teachers nor his community will ever see the ideal education; but unless he has visions of it there will be no progress¹ where he labors, however hard he may labor. Without this vision, the superintendent has no power with either his board or his community. That was a great saying of America's greatest seer, — Of what use is your speech "when what you are thunders in my ears?"² One's ideals are largely inferred from his acts.

5. And supervision is foresight. The good supervisor sees ahead, near ahead and far ahead. He plans ahead, gives instruction ahead, takes the people of the community into his confidence ahead of his need of their help. The value of this preparation of the mind and heart of individuals and of the community is incalculable. The value appears in two results. There is much opposition that is offered to new measures simply because they are new.³ No one opposes them after they have become familiar with the thought.

A striking illustration was the experience of a certain superintendent regarding manual training, for which, against many opponents, he had prepared the mind of his community through a considerable period of years. Finally, a course in manual training was adopted with practically no opposition. The few vigorous opponents found no support. The great majority of the people considered that all the arguments were in long since, and their opinions were final.

One prominent citizen remarked at a public meeting, — "It has come to stay." Another said, — "We have seen our own children's work, and it is all right." A third declared, — "There's no use in fighting over dead issues. We voted on that before."

A frequent illustration is in the experience of those who, having thrown out the suggestion of a plan, as it were casually, find it presented as the original suggestion of some man of strong influence. The tactful

¹ See Chapter XII, "The New Education."

² Ralph Waldo Emerson,

³ See Chapter XIII, "The Educational Policy of the Community."

superintendent desires no credit. He rejoices in a convert and an apostle, and helps the good work forward as an humble assistant.

Such is supervision. To it philosophy contributes breadth of mind; religion, graciousness of heart and manner; psychology, knowledge of human nature; science, systematic truth-seeking; ethics, truthfulness; pure literature, visions of ideals; and political science, the record of human experience that becomes the wisdom of foresight. We indeed read too much of pedagogy and study too much the subject-matter of our curriculums, when we read so much that we never have time to read economics, sociology, literature, religion, science, and poetry, and to hear the best music and to study the best art.

Supervision is primarily not authority, but ministry. The good supervisor comes to his colleagues to give help, knowing so much and being so glad to impart his knowledge¹ that help follows in due course.

Supervision has certain objects. The first of these is to convey facts about the schools and about education to the representatives of the people upon the board of education. The superintendent is an intermediary, the official and responsible intermediary, between the schools and the board. He ought to be so careful, so explicit, so complete about all facts that he reports or ought to report, as to cause the board to quote him rather than to send investigators or to go themselves to the schools for the facts. He must neither exaggerate nor seriously understate the facts. His estimates, therefore, should be made with exceeding care.

To illustrate: In a certain city, a controversy began to rage regarding the attendance and the need of more school accommodations. The superintendent gathered his facts with care, and made estimates of the

¹ See also Chapter XIV, "Education for Supervision."

effect, upon attendance, of building several new schools. An investigation committee was appointed. By visits to every class room, they found that the superintendent had understated the facts by one and a half per cent. One new school was ordered. When it was opened, the attendance was twenty-five per cent larger than his estimate. Thereafter through a long term of years the superintendent's statistics and estimates were never challenged. His community was soon relieved of all pressure upon school accommodations by ample provision for the attendance.

To illustrate the impolicy as well as the unrighteousness of understating needs: In a certain community, where the superintendent's tenure was insecure, he persistently contradicted public accusations of overcrowding and refused to present complaints. The board, consisting largely of taxpayers, for years denied the facts and refused to investigate. Suddenly the superintendent's resignation was demanded; and within a year new buildings were going up in various parts of the city. The discharged superintendent, upon seeking a recommendation for employment elsewhere, was ungratefully refused any indorsement by his former main supporters on the ground that he had withheld the facts.

Sometimes, the school superintendent and other supervising officers do well to disregard the board of education and to present the facts directly to the people, in the public press or in public meetings. This is a hard doctrine, often bitterly resented by board members; but the righteousness of it appears in a consideration of the facts. For the success of the free common schools the general public chooses to hold the teachers¹ responsible exactly as in the cases of endowed schools and of private schools. In the entire history of education, recent and remote, in the New World and in the Old, no board member, no trustee, has ever won educational fame, however long and valuable may have been that service, or whether given to university or to common schools. The public has always known that education is never life's main concern to the board mem-

¹ Unless otherwise defined, the word "teacher" indicates all persons professionally connected with the schools from kindergartners to superintendent.

ber. The public sees board members come and go. A board of education is a running stream. The public sees many teachers remain teachers, often in one community, all their lives. The drift into and out of the profession is confined largely to rural districts and to small communities. In the cities once a teacher is to be always a teacher. The percentage of change among city board members is many times that of the teachers.

Whatever may be the legal powers of boards of education, and however great they may be, these powers are vested in the board, not in the board members. The public, which is not expert in the laws, chooses to fasten the responsibility upon those persons who daily and visibly exercise authority. Upon us who teach, especially upon those who supervise teaching, upon us individually and as the representatives of a profession in our community, rests the obligation of good schools. Whenever and wherever the body of teachers in village, city, or State, work daily, in school and out of school, for good schools, they get them. In the degree of their intelligence, desire, and effort they get them as far as public and private resources permit. They get well-lighted and well-ventilated buildings, manual training and domestic science courses, school extension, lecture courses, and salaries higher than most other teachers.

The present condition of American schools reflects the average demand of the teachers themselves. Those of us who try to charge the responsibility for poor schools upon ignorant or niggardly board members, political city councils, an apathetic public, indifferent parents, grudging taxpayers, have completely missed the point at which the educational profession aims. This end is the protection, by the teachers, of the interests of the children and the

youth, in the midst of those collisions of self-interest which we call the "world."

There were teachers centuries and ages before there were boards of education. There will be teachers long after the present political scheme of supporting free common education by taxation of private wealth has ceased to be a necessity. The teacher is never the creation of any board of education. On the contrary, every board of education is merely a political and legal device for maintaining the teachers.

No teacher, whether of the alphabet or of physics, whether in the class room or in the superintendent's office, should feel that he owes his teaching position in human society to any set of men, not even to his board of education. He owes his teaching position to himself and to the teachers who taught him, to his fellow-men who need teachers for themselves and for their sons and daughters, and to man, the race whose destiny is of many millenniums. He may owe his office and his salary to a particular board, even to a majority of the members of that board. As far as the recollection of this fact interferes with his courageous performance of his duty, he ought to put it out of his mind.

Obviously, many times in the proper performance of his educational duties, a superintendent must go directly to the people with facts for their consideration. The people will listen to them and will go to the board members. This appeal to the public conscience is good for the community, good for the board of education, and good for the teachers and the schools. In a democracy, the people have the right to know both what they are paying for, and what they ought to pay for. "The truth shall make you free," is a truth for the schools.

The ability of the superintendent is tested severely in his selection of what to tell the people, and how to tell it, and when. But his policy with the board of education ought invariably to be that of keeping every member fully informed. To the board should go out reports at any time. A weekly letter of condensed news is sometimes not too frequent.

The second object of supervision is to bring the people into helpful and sympathetic relations with the schools. It is the supervisor's business to get public appreciation of the work of the teachers, who are themselves completely absorbed in their daily duties. The means to be employed to secure this public appreciation are various. No duty of the supervisor is more important than this, and none is so frequently neglected.

The values of public appreciation of the teacher's faithful daily work are several. The first is that the teacher who feels that her work is appreciated by the board of control, the parents, the citizens, and the supervisors, does better work, and does it more cheerfully. To know that the public thinks well of its servant is an inspiration. That the lot of most teachers is hard is generally well known, but that the chief factor in its hardness is the apathy of the community, for which the work is done, is not so generally well known.

No doubt there are two points of view from which the teacher's lot is commonly regarded: that of the comparatively poor and ignorant, to whom the few hundred dollars received annually by most teachers seems a great sum for one person who works only two hundred days in the year and only five hours in the day; and that of the successful business and professional men whose monthly incomes exceed the annual incomes of teachers. Yet even

the poor and ignorant man sees in the teacher's daily task much hardship in the constant control of forty or fifty children. Often he says, "It's hard enough to manage four or five children at home." To him the discipline difficulty appeals strongly. The hardness of the teacher's lot is seen by the successful well-to-do man in its material rewards, which are usually the occupancy of a single room in not too fine a house, the ordinary meals in cheap boarding houses, clothes not better than those of the most plainly dressed women of the families of people of very moderate means, and very restricted vacations.¹

The hardest feature of the lot of the class teacher, who at thirty or forty years is still working with children daily, is that her time is spent upon those who cannot see and appreciate her services, who are certain to forget her, and who often misrepresent her best endeavors. To live with and among children is not a normal state of life for adults. Undeniably, it tends to cramp the mind and to dull the spirits. This, more than anything else, tends to remove persons of energy, character, and intelligence from the profession, or to sour their best qualities. The very experiences of life, the growing old, the losing, by removal to other places or by death, of relatives and friends,—all tend to widen the space in thought and aspiration between the children and the teacher. There is but one remedy. For this the good supervisor provides a constant acquaintance by social meetings with the adult citizens who are interested in the schools.

A second value of the public appreciation of the teacher is that the children and youth in the schools then do better work. The feeling for "the public eye" is not confined to adults. When the children and the youth know that

¹ See Chapter XVI, "Salary, Tenure, and Certificate."

their parents and acquaintances are concerned for the welfare of the schools, they make an effort to do well so as to appear well. In fact, the chief value of the visitor's appearance in the class room is in arousing the pupils. It makes no great difference whether the visitor be man or woman, superintendent or board member, the person is a new adult, and the children's natural and common feeling of isolation with their teacher from the moving affairs of the real world disappears for a time in the glowing consciousness of being discovered, and of being sufficiently important to warrant the expenditure of the time of an adult.¹ The immediate effects of the visit soon disappear, but the consciousness that another visitor may come, at almost any time, does not disappear at all from the school of which the public does show its appreciation by occasional visits.

Further, this public appreciation manifests itself also in home inquiries and in the inquiries of friends regarding the school's affairs and the children's own records. In almost every respect this is very desirable. No doubt, occasionally, where the relations between the school and the home are sympathetic, the parents make unreasonable requests, which otherwise they would not think or dare to make. But also in such relations the teacher sometimes makes strange requests. Yet, on the whole, the relations of intimacy are vastly better. The children are more easily controlled. Home work, if given at all, is better done, as well as more reasonably assigned. The monthly report card loses an importance that it never should have, that of being the sole medium of communication between the teacher and parent.

¹ See Chapter XI, "The Teacher as Administrator and Supervisor," where the various limitations of schools by parents and citizens are discussed.

The third object of supervision is to "help the teacher." This object, though the most talked of, is the least important. Further, it is the only one that appeals immediately to business men on boards of education. Where the supervisory force is inadequate, there, in order to secure its extension, an argument is needed. The most effective argument is that the teachers need help and guidance in their work. The standards of the competent supervisor are uniform and high, and his knowledge and his experience are greater than those of the class teacher. Therefore, he not only holds the teachers to their best work, but gives them assistance in doing it.

A striking instance of the value of this argument is the following: In a certain city, in each of the school buildings there had been placed recently a supervising principal, that is, a principal without a class. This apparently added an expense of about \$1000 a year to each school, with an apparent maximum salary of \$1500 for the "extra" teacher. A heavy taxpayer, in indignation, called upon the superintendent of schools and protested against the "useless extravagance." When the superintendent replied that the teachers needed the help of a principal, not only in the subject-matter of the studies and the class-room discipline, but also in the discussions with the parents that otherwise interrupted recitations, the obdurate taxpayer replies, "You ought to get such good teachers that they would not need to be helped at any time from one year's end to the other." The superintendent then went on to show that a good teacher with good supervisory assistance could teach fifty children better than she could teach thirty without such assistance. He showed that \$100 per class room apparently "added" to the expense of the schools was more than offset by the release of the teachers' power.¹ This argument was successful.

The matter of supervision for the assistance of the teacher has now developed so far in some communities as to be an actual menace to good schools. Work is planned in such detail as to make the teacher's own men-

¹ See Chapter XI, "The Teacher as Administrator and Supervisor," where the real economy of placing a supervising principal in every schoolhouse is discussed. Also page 18c

tal activity impossible. As no stream is likely to rise higher than its source, the task-bound mind of the teacher is not likely to develop the free intelligence of the child.

The "helping the teacher" that is most heard of and most thought of consists in visiting the class room and in changing some method or device of instruction or discipline. In order to promote the success of young teachers, this is often absolutely necessary. Whenever it is done, it should be so done as not to arouse in the minds of the children a suspicion that the teacher is not so "good" a teacher as the supervisor. The value of good supervision may be seen by a comparison of a school system with supervisors and a school system without supervisors, and by supposing either to be transformed into the other. Among the changes would be the following: In the school system that should lose its supervisors, all parents who wished to see any teachers would go immediately to the class rooms rather than to the principal's office, thus interrupting recitations. All records formerly kept by the principal would be kept severally and disconnectedly by the teachers. There would be no person responsible for the physical care of text-books and supplies. The teachers would have no representative to urge their claims and offer their excuses in various matters. There would be no central authority for the selection of text-books and apparatus. Every teacher would necessarily attend to the discipline of his or her own class room, or else send a disorderly pupil to the officers of the board of education. Teachers needing advice and counsel would have no one of larger experience to whom of right to go. The promotions of individuals and of classes would have no standard examinations and tests. Finally, the board of control would necessarily deal with the teachers as individuals, and not as an organized body.

Such a change would inevitably be a change for the worse, and could be justified only by a sudden financial calamity befalling the entire community.

The opposite change need not be portrayed at any length. The installation of a competent supervisory force in a town or city, and the extension of a supervisory force, are both processes familiar in recent educational history. Such a change is always considered progress. Yet the progress is attended with the danger of reducing the teacher to an unthinking machine.

The legitimate forms of competent school supervision may be classified under two heads: relieving the teacher, and organizing the schools efficiently.

Under the head of supervision as a mode of relieving the teachers, may be included the following : —

- I. Taking charge of all serious cases of discipline.
- II. Receiving all calls of parents during school hours.
- III. Preparing, or completing, many of the reports.
- IV. Advising and counseling with the teachers regarding advance lessons and reviews.

But the work of organizing the schools, so that they may be consistent, harmonious, and efficient, is an equally important form of competent school supervision. This includes the following : —

- I. Developing, in considerable detail, the work of each grade year by year, and month by month, and discussing the work with the teachers.
- II. Establishing uniform standards of promotion, so that pupils may be transferred from one school to another upon equal terms.
- III. Taking charge of school assembly and general exercises.
- IV. Arranging and holding parents' meetings in the school buildings.
- V. Organizing school exhibits of regular work in all lines of study.
- VI. Advising with the board of examiners regarding the qualifications of candidates for licenses, and selecting the best candidates, whether local or not, for positions vacant.
- VII. Filling the teacher's place when absent from illness or other cause, or securing a well-prepared and competent substitute.

VIII. Representing the educational needs of the schools to the board members individually and at board meetings.

IX. Keeping constantly before the teachers broad conceptions and high ideals, and encouraging in them renewed zeal for their lives of inevitable routine and detail.

To the success of supervision there have been set severe limitations. The first of these limitations is in the personal equation of the supervisor. To suppress one's individuality and to take on personality is the constant aim of the good supervisor. Personality is individuality changed and developed into sociality. No great success can ever come to any one who, as a supervisor, cannot divest himself of all notable idiosyncrasies, whether offensive or not, and who cannot acquire that grace which is care for the opinions and interests of others. The true supervisor seeks the general welfare in forgetfulness of his immediate concerns.

Personality, the appearance and the voice of the wise, who know life by experiencing it, and by the power of imagination living the life of others, is the glory of those who by education have reached true culture. The presence of a supervisor who has acquired this insight and this judgment, this sympathy and graciousness, is a joy to the schools wherein he serves. Obviously, the supervisor who cannot see himself as others see him, who cannot see others as they really are, who cannot see things from several points of view as far apart as the compass can point, is certain to be more or less of a failure. In the degree in which he can see truth and express it, he succeeds. In the degree of his blind prejudice, he fails.

The second limitation of supervision is in the personal equation of the teachers who are supervised. This is out

of the control of the supervisor, save in so far as he can select his own subordinates.

The supervisor indeed supervises both teachers and pupils, and the latter he cannot select. Nevertheless, the strong man who is a supervisor, and the strong woman also, can create an atmosphere that seems to go about with them. "The children seem to change their nature," said a certain teacher, "when So-and-So enters the room." This is, in part, due to the authority any supervisor carries about with him; but the influence, the atmosphere, of some supervisors is radiant with courage, kindness, and intelligence. Every one feels their power. Because the weak can and do respond to the strong, this second limitation of good supervision is less severe than the first.

Where the supervisor can select his own subordinates, there, in the course of a few years, subject to the limitations of the pay-roll, the supervised teachers reflect the qualities of the supervisor. From this fact, the injustice of expecting a superintendent to create good schools, without giving him any influence in the selection of teachers, appears flagrant.

The superintendent who is in a community willing to import teachers from elsewhere, that is, to employ so-called outsiders, is indeed fortunate. The staff composed wholly of local teachers¹ is generally less desirable than the one composed wholly of teachers not native to the community. But that body of teachers is necessarily the best, in which at least one half are employed because of special

¹ The local training school, historically considered, is a device to secure teachers of a minimum competence at a minimum price. As between a local teacher (that is, one native to the community) and a so-called outsider, the superintendent should always choose the better one, taking education and ability only into consideration. A local teacher trained in a State normal school with experience elsewhere should not be refused consideration because of having a home in the community. Political considerations should operate neither for nor against a candidate.

fitness, rather than because of accident of locality of birth or of training.

The first principle that should guide a superintendent in the selection of teachers nominated for a position in a school system where such a nomination is practically election, is to get for that teacher, or rather for that teaching position, as large a salary as is desirable, so that the best available candidate can be selected. Failing to secure the largest salary that is desirable, he should endeavor to get as large a salary as it is possible for him to get. On this basis, he is ready to go into the professional market.

His second principle of action should be, that the most desirable candidate for the position must usually be sought for. It is true that good teachers are openly in the market; but it is not true generally that the superintendent can secure, even from agencies, a file of applications that will include quite such good candidates as he can discover by personal investigation, and especially by traveling about in other communities and in normal schools.

The third principle is, that the superintendent should consider whether it is absolutely necessary to have for the position either a man or a woman, or whether, for this particular position, sex is a matter of indifference.

For the fourth principle, he will form in his mind an opinion as to what training the teacher should have had, whether collegiate, normal, or technical, and in what school or schools.

The fifth principle is one operative only in the larger communities, where, as a matter of educational policy, it is best to require the creation of eligible lists. In such large communities, the more desirable candidates will be notified concerning the time and place of examination. In such examinations, it is usual to consider the scholarly qualifications as about sixty per cent, the education and references therefor about twenty per cent, and the experience and references therefor at about twenty per cent.

The sixth consideration of the superintendent is personality. An experienced and wise superintendent is always inclined to consider good physique, buoyancy of spirit, cheerfulness, and culture as very important factors in the desirability of candidates.

Such may be considered the affirmative principles of selection. It may be well to note what are the factors that a superintendent will not

consider. He will pay little or no attention to any matters of religion or of backing by prominent people. He will certainly ignore any support by politicians.

The question whether or not the superintendent should favor a candidate who has private means is one that may be answered best by a statement of the important aspects involved. The teacher with private means is able to present a better personal appearance and to live better, and therefore to create a higher prestige for education than can the teacher without such means. Nevertheless, for the welfare of the profession, it seems best for educators to encourage the ambitious man or woman, who has worked his or her way forward in life, from conditions of poverty or of very moderate circumstances. Such persons are usually the most loyal to the profession itself, to the cause of education, and to the school authorities. A question sometimes arises as to whether a candidate who has other persons dependent on him or her for support, should be favored or set aside. In general, it may be said that such persons are most faithful, and, despite their handicaps, are likely to make, in the course of the years, the most valuable teachers in a school system. Their motive to succeed is stronger than that of the isolated single adult, and their effort stronger than that of the adult who is partly supported by a private income.

To every teacher the study of human nature is both duty and necessity; and by every teacher human nature must be studied both scientifically and artistically. To the man who knows men, women, and children, the second limitation of good supervision, that is, the weakness and wrongness of humanity, becomes an incentive to his soul.

The third limitation of good supervision is the public's sense of the importance of education, the public's failure to understand the needs and ends of education. There is generally too little supervision of the right kind in our schools.¹ The causes of this are twofold. The public does not know the need of good supervision and is not willing to provide enough of it in adequate variety. And

¹ For a discussion of the kinds of supervisors needed in the schools see Chapter VII, "The Supervisorship."

the public does not yet pay enough, even to the supervisors it now has, to attract an average high degree of talent.¹

A sufficient amount of good supervision involves the employment of a considerable number of supervisors in proportion to the number of class teachers. For a town with four thousand children in eight schools, the supervising force ought to be, in ideal school conditions, somewhat as follows, namely: —

One superintendent.

One supervising high school principal.

Seven supervising elementary school principals.

One supervising evening school principal, with charge also of evening free lecture courses.

One supervisor of kindergartens and primary work.

One supervisor of art.

One supervisor of manual training and domestic science.

One supervisor of music.

One supervisor of physical training.

One consulting psychologist.

One consulting sociologist.

One consulting school physician and medical inspector.

All of these are actually needed, as every man knows who is familiar with the schools and the pupils of to-day.²

We may be certain that within a few decades supervision will far exceed in range, in amount, and in quality what it is in our own generation.

The supervisor, in relation to the scholarship of his schools, is as a traveler going to a great and far country, to earn wages, and to bring back treasures from its vast stores of wealth. He must know the culture of the world, and from that culture he must take supplies to enrich his courses of study. The past forever lives in the present. Scholarship is a body of treasures remote from most men. The past is most of the life of the present, and survives in our ignorance, prejudice, cruelty, and selfishness. The

¹ See Chapter XVI, "Salary, Tenure, and Certificate."

² See Chapter VII, "The Supervisorship."

future in its realities is anticipated only in the thoughts of the wise ; the future is brought to reality only by the efforts of the strong. In his relation to the scholarship of his schools the supervisor must be both wise and strong.

In relation to the children and youth, the supervisor is as a pioneer going into the great wilderness of primeval forests, to make there a home of civilization. Where was wrong or sin, he drives the furrows of righteousness ; where was ignorance, he plants knowledge ; where was dullness, he cultivates intelligence. Thus generation after generation is redeemed from the wilderness of the past so that many a garden paradise blooms and yields fruit in the civilization of the present.

In relation to his schools, the supervisor is as a seagoing captain of the mediæval time upon a chartless sea. He has a compass and, when the night is clear, recognizes the polar star. But neither he nor any other man can know what lies beyond the horizon.

As the poet Lowell has said, democracy adventures "chartless upon the sea of storm-engendering liberty." What storms may come, what lands be found, who knows ? All that the scholar can know is that supervision stands for increasing complexity in the organization of society ; which, as Darwin, Spencer, Huxley, Fiske, and other great thinkers of modern times have abundantly shown, means progress.

Decade by decade, the social duties more and more differentiate, separate, and integrate. Time was when the parent was priest, teacher, physician, provider, warrior, builder, for his family. Then the clergy appeared, and the clergy were teachers. From the teachers came the principals. From the principals came supervisors. From the supervisors came superintendents. Distinct is the

modern division of labor, which is civilization. And the end is not yet.

As the chief of the staff of supervisors, the superintendent ought to be primarily a supervisor rather than an administrator. When a board of education cannot find for its employ an educator who is competent in both respects, it ought to choose one who is stronger in supervision than in administration in the following conditions, namely: ¹—

I. When the community already has really good schools. This must not be a matter of local opinion and tradition, but ought to be determined by actual visits to other communities of the highest educational reputation.

II. The community with a few schools and a narrow course of study.

III. The community that has no great and peculiar difficulties.²

IV. The community that is willing to wait a few years to see good schools solidly built up and as good as possible.

V. The community that is in doubt.

Let such a community always take the scholarly supervisor rather than the brilliant administrator, when the salary available for the superintendent does not command the services of an educator who is both skillful as a supervisor and forceful as an administrator. Most laymen are less likely to be deceived in the former quality than in the latter. Most boards are far more able to supply deficiencies in executive power than in professional knowledge.

As the administrator must first administer well his own time, so the supervisor must supervise himself critically and relentlessly.³

The public expects much of the teachers, draining them of their resources of body, mind, and purse. But the public expects everything of the superintendent, who is

¹ There are about a dozen communities in this country with notably good schools; yet none of them has schools as good as they ought to be, for the sake of the children's mothers who bore them, and of this nation, that carries as its priceless freightage the dearest hopes of enlightened, free, and righteous humanity.

² See page 111, where the communities that need administrators are considered.

³ See page 303, Chapter XIV.

the teacher of teachers. The power of self-criticism must be trained early in his life and must be exercised daily.

The superintendent must have leisure. This seems impossible to the man of endless cares and tasks and opportunities of service. But it is the price of his soul's safety and of the progress of his schools. The poet Tennyson has said, "Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers." This truth suggests the vital principle. The progress of the world has been due rather to thought than to work, to dreams and to plans primarily, for these are the inspiration of all wise activities. In the hours of leisure, thought may be organized. It is true that the teacher seldom does too many things, but it is also true that time spent in accumulating knowledge or in getting things done, is misspent, when spent at the price of health of body or health of mind. All successful teachers are in danger of falling into a habit of excessive work, from which the only recovery is in idleness or in vain recreation.

School means "leisure," according to etymology. The real school seldom means this in practice either to teacher or to student. What is leisure? To read poetry and philosophy, to hear and think music, to see art, to play, to travel and to observe, to make articles of beauty, to discover truth. In such leisure, the vision is created anew. Then the soul gains power of loyalty to the great principles of truth, righteousness, beauty, and friendship. Then the mind discovers the differences and characteristics of the good and the bad, the better and the worse. In this leisure, the higher vision grows clear, and the spirit is regenerated. It is the mountain air of the soul; it is the upper view of the wide world.

CHAPTER V

THE SUPERINTENDENT

THE superintendent is supervisor and administrator, and more : he is the representative of the schools, their accredited ambassador to the public.¹ The superintendent is the central officer of the school system. The superintendency is the focal point. Around him the schools rotate. He has more real power (by custom only) than any other municipal employee, and usually has at least as large a salary as the mayor or treasurer, and often more. A larger amount of the local taxes usually goes to him than to any other public servant. He knows more people than the postmaster or the chief of police. Sooner or later every one has business with him ; all roads lead to his Rome.

The records of a single day's business of a superintendent of a small system of schools and of a superintendent in a larger system usually show that the larger the city the less is the variety of cares, and the more distinctly narrowed to educational topics.

¹ I deal very plainly with this topic. In a large sense, it is the central topic of this book. The position of superintendent of schools is seriously misunderstood by most people, including most superintendents, for three reasons: first, the comparatively small salary that the office commands; second, the extreme weakness of the tenure; and third, the complete absence of real powers based upon statute law. The income of all government officers in a democracy is invariably small. Our United States minister to England, our consuls, our senators, our supreme Court justices, our governors of States, all are underpaid in comparison with what men of no greater ability can earn in private business. A school superintendent is a "cheap" man compared with a bank cashier or a successful lawyer or physician or corporation manager. This belittles him in the eyes of those who think habitually only in dollars and cents, and who see, and have the power to see, only the family estate of the educator. Again, the superintendency too often is but the plaything of politics. The breath of democracy can and does make or mar the superintendent. See Chapter XVI, "Salary, Tenure, and Certificate." Finally, save by custom and by resolutions easily revoked, nearly all superintendents are entirely subordinate to their boards.

A SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT'S DAY IN A SMALL CITY

1. Inspected school building. Sent messenger for painter to repair window glass. Notified chief of police to follow up street "hoodlums" who broke glass.
2. Read mail; business letters from places large and small; correspondence with colleges; teachers' applications; requests for subscriptions to help national charities; calls to give addresses here and there, generally "gratis"; answered mail.
3. Mayor called to talk about next year's appropriations.
4. Looked into a new text-book.
5. Visited a school; sent one child home who had apparently an infectious disease; discussed salary with a discontented teacher.
6. Dictated circular letter to board of education regarding educational and financial matters.
7. Saw a text-book agent.
8. Ate lunch; interrupted by call of mother of sick child.
9. Read and signed letters of reply to morning mail.
10. Called at business place of board member; saw two politicians there; discussed three R's as usual.
11. Held grade meeting; gave sample lesson on "Mensuration."
12. Visited by Catholic sisters from parochial school, regarding truants.
13. Read afternoon mail; sent notes regretting absence from office to following callers: Presbyterian minister, carpenter to discuss repairs in a school building, mother of child suspended from school for misconduct.
14. Made a statistical table.
15. Ate dinner; caller on school matters came at 7 o'clock.
16. Went to evening engagement, and was called on to speak.
17. Read an hour and retired for the night.¹ In a larger city half of the foregoing matters would seldom come to the attention of the superintendent.

The business transacted by a superintendent of schools

¹ In addition, when on the street, the superintendent met people who were reminded that they wished to speak with the head of the schools about some child, or some change in course of study. The above would be an "easy day." For a hard day add a board or committee of the board meeting; or else a formal public address; or the making of tests. A superintendent of schools may reasonably expect to have talks with fifty to a hundred different adults daily. Everything or anything said may be quoted or "twisted," in their report of the conversation.

is equal daily to that transacted by a manager of a factory with as many employees as the schools have children. The former deals with labor and property ; the latter has the "cure of souls." Judge which has the more serious work, the greater responsibility. Undoubtedly, the school superintendent has larger freedom than any business manager.

The superintendent of schools, although in the employ of the board of education, is directly responsible to the board of education, and indirectly responsible to the parents, the taxpayers, and the community, as a component part of the State and nation.

In at least one State¹ of the Union, the superintendent of a school system as such is subject to several more or less independent jurisdictions ; namely : to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who hears appeals from the decisions of municipal superintendents, and to whom various reports are sent ; to the State board of education which prescribes various rules and regulations for the government of municipal schools ; to the State board of examiners, which by direction of the State legislature and under the rules of the State board of education examines teachers, — among the rules there being one requiring every municipal superintendent to hold a State license to teach ; to the county superintendent of schools in matters relating to State appropriations and school attendance ; to the local board of education for his own appointment and continuance in office, and for many matters upon which the State legislation is incomplete, or in which the State delegates power to the local board ; and to the municipal board of examiners in respect to eligible lists from which to make nominations of teachers.

Often there is an apparent, sometimes a real, conflict between these governing authorities. At such times, a

¹ New Jersey.

thorough knowledge of the school laws of the State and of the rules and regulations of all the school governing bodies, together with the special rights of the municipality as displayed in its charter or act of incorporation, if any, becomes indispensable. Every school superintendent ought to know enough of law to avoid errors himself and to guide aright the actions of his own board of education.

It is the legal and political aspect of the superintendency that, in view of the possibility of holding a superintendency for life, makes it one of the greatest public offices in our nation to-day. In the very nature of mayoralties, governorships, the presidency itself, the tenure is perfect but limited. No man as mayor can serve his city with a reasonable hope of serving it all his remaining life, or until he goes elsewhere to another mayoralty.¹ Judges, senators, occasionally municipal engineers, hold office for life, by various reëlections and appointments. As in the case of certain United States judges and municipal officers, superintendents are now sometimes appointed "during good behavior."

The city superintendent lives by public favor. He is one of the few men in the community whose income is willingly granted. The man who, living in conformity with our laws of property and behavior, collects private wealth or performs private service, never has the one satisfaction of the public servant who can say, "If my neighbors did not wish me to live here, I would not be here." Cities are inclined to discount too much from the salary of the superintendent because of this satisfaction. The man who in private business would be able to earn

¹ Professor Ely, in his "The Coming City," seriously proposes that America adopt the German custom of employing as mayors men as well trained to that form of public service as superintendents of schools are trained for their duties. The proposition is worth considering.

five thousand dollars is likely to receive two thousand dollars in any kind of public service. It is regrettable that the hardship of the lot of the superintendent falls chiefly upon his wife and children. Yet even to them is a measure of return in the social position of the husband and father, who, in the eyes of all citizens, rich and poor, wise and ignorant, Protestant, Catholic, Jew, and non-churchgoer, represents the city's standard of culture.

The duties of this man who holds this central position in the cultural life of the city may be expressed in various forms:—

I. The superintendent represents culture in its effort to reach the new generation.

II. He is the intermediary between the teachers and the board of education; as it were, an arbitrator.

III. He is the attorney for the teachers.

IV. He is the chief executive officer who serves the board of education.

V. He is the paid advocate of progress and is false to his trust when he surrenders even in defeat.

VI. He is the head of the schools.

VII. He is the acknowledged leader of educational progress.

The responsibilities of the school superintendent begin with these duties and radiate outward to the limits of the horizon of his own conscience. These responsibilities appear in a consideration of the perils that seem to lie in wait for him everywhere.

1. The greatest peril of any superintendent is the peril from losing confidence in his own success. The man who can secure an election as superintendent of the schools in any community has already made a certain success. In 1900, there were some two thousand men who could be classed as superintendents of schools. Less than one hundred of

these received as much as \$3000 a year, it is true, yet every one represented the standard of educational culture of his community.

The superintendent who fears that he will not be retained in his office and that he will not be able to secure another as desirable or better has not yet thoroughly prepared himself for his duties ;¹ either he has ceased to grow intellectually or else has not taken due care of his health, or perhaps has done such things as to deserve discharge and removal from the profession.

It is evidence that tenure is needed for superintendents that in most States of the Union the number of superintendents who have had twenty-five years of experience in their position seldom exceeds more than two or three. Most lawyers and physicians remain all their lives in the community in which they begin their practice. In certain of the religious denominations, the lifelong pastorate is not uncommon, while in the Catholic Church, the principle of life tenancy in a parish is recognized as desirable for the welfare of the Church.

The school superintendent, who is elected year after year, knows that in any flurry of public excitement he may possibly lose his position. In one of the Northern States of the Union, the average term of a superintendency is two years. This is a scandalous state of affairs.

A timid man has not the energy and the courage to secure progress in his schools.

2. The second peril of the superintendent is the peril of physical overwork. Many a man makes mistakes from physical weariness and mental and nervous fatigue.

The overfatigue cannot always be avoided, but no man of good sense who is fatigued attempts to do work of the responsible nature of a school superintendency. One bad mistake, or an accumulation of little mistakes, may wreck the career of a good man. The sensible superintendent when fatigued does not go out to his school duties and thereby risk errors, does not go on to nervous exhaustion and thereby risk retirement as an invalid; on the contrary, he goes to bed and gets rested, with or without the care of a physician.

The competent superintendent knows as much about physiology, hygiene, and medicine as he does about law; that is, the fundamentals. He ought to know as much as one who has studied law or medicine at least a year or so.

Far better to deny one's self to callers and to cancel the engagements

¹ See Chapter XIV, "Education for Supervision."

of a day or two, than to take any form of a stimulant, dry or fluid, drug or liquor, and risk a blunder or a disease. Better to lose a battle than a campaign. In life, campaigns are won often with more defeats in battle than victories.

3. Another peril of the superintendent is a low physical tone. The variety of a superintendent's work tends to good health and spirits. Yet he needs physical power, to resist opponents and critics. Such power is secured and maintained only by exercise, out of doors as much as possible, regular and judicious. Chest, lung, stomach, and arm exercises are especially important.¹

4. Another peril of the school superintendent is a lowering of the moral tone. He sees a great many things that tend to embitter him against humanity. He gets "inside" views. He hears many critics. Said a disgruntled board chairman to the school superintendent, "Oh, well, you hear only the compliments." "No," replied the superintendent, "I hear only the complaints." He sees brutal treatment of children by parents, rich men concealing their wealth from tax assessors, the wages of the poor squandered on liquor and tobacco; religious debates and "sociables," instead of charitable work for the poor and ignorant; public officers performing, or trying to perform, the duties of offices for which they are incompetent in ability and experience and unfit in morals; and a democratic government exploited for the benefit of the few. He sees these things as an "insider," often under conditions where to reveal the facts would be to betray a trust and to endanger the peace and prosperity of the schools. He is compelled to stifle the voice of conscience lest in some hot moment he undo the constructive work of years. But unless he would cease to be good and to do good, he must not quiet his conscience itself. Rather must he persistently vitalize, educate, and improve his own moral life, knowing that there comes a fullness of time when he can speak and act and achieve. Even in morals, opportunity cannot be forced. This may seem to the private citizen casuistry. On the contrary, it is statesmanship.

To illustrate: There was a man on a certain board of education who blocked every increase of teachers' salaries, yet worked for new schools, better text-books, and enlarged courses of study. What the community especially needed was an improved material equipment. Rather

¹ Said a bitter opponent of a certain school superintendent, after calling upon him for the first time: "He does not look it; but when I heard his voice, I knew I could not effect my purpose. His signature is a challenge. He likes a battle."

than help force out this only partially enlightened board member, the superintendent helped to keep him on the board until all that he was good for had been secured. Then, at an opportune time, the member was dropped in such fashion that he continued outside of the board as a strong friend of the schools. Similarly, at a later period, a man objectionable in many other ways was assisted in getting upon the board because he advocated higher salaries.

To illustrate another phase of the matter: For a long period of years a superintendent knew that a certain board member was systematically using his office for his own profit, quietly, benefiting to the extent of one hundred dollars a year, a relatively small sum. Yet this man was a pillar of strength in every issue for progress, and in a political sense "owned a ward" that had no other intelligent citizen available for board membership. The superintendent bided his time. At length a suitable man appeared as an opposing candidate. Without publicity, lest a school scandal should arise, the corrupt member was persuaded to go out of the board.

5. A peril of the superintendent is the waste of energy, for example, in text-book making,¹ or in giving public addresses, professional or

¹ The subject of text-book making should be carefully investigated. In modern competitive business the chances of success in the case of a text-book are not one in ten. To succeed the book must be: —

- I. Uncommonly good.
- II. Well advertised.
- III. Pushed by a responsible house.
- IV. Adapted to meet a real need.

Few manuscripts are uncommonly good. Only a few publishing houses advertise well and systematically. There are only a few strong houses. In nearly all subjects now in our school courses of study there are good text-books. Few, when carefully examined, are perfect. Methods change, and new books are then demanded. Superintendents, however, are not the men to undertake the work, but rather principals and supervisors, whose evenings at home at least are free. The hoped-for royalties are seldom realized. Books made for cash payment are never adequately paid for when the time required to make them is considered. There are not a few failures of publishing houses. No doubt some books are made solely to exploit a theory. No doubt also the experience of making a text-book is professionally valuable. Finally, now and then a book makes a success, giving the author an annual income through a period of years of hundreds of dollars. There are almost no capitalists in school-teaching; there are no wealthy family physicians; the work is too hard in both cases. The man who can bravely bear up under wrongs or disappointments is the only man who can safely undertake the making of books. He must be ready to forgive his friends for not using his books and his publishers for advising him to write them. The publishers always have as the first end in view, — the making of money. Sometimes they have another also, the improving of their texts in a particular line, and sometimes, the completing of their "lists." The superintendent who does contract to make a book ought to make it thoroughly and to make it himself.

popular. A school superintendent ought to be both a good speaker and a good writer, though several other qualifications are considerably more important.

6. The superintendent is in peril of losing the equal social qualities and assuming the air of a bureaucrat or an autocrat. This is bad in politics and as a matter of character. He does so much in the way of authority that he is apt to assume the air of a ruler and to adopt the language of an "official." This peril creeps on slowly but surely. In certain quarters, official dignity becomes fashionable. Natural-born Americans, of native-born ancestry for a few generations, seldom assume this dignity, for it amounts to an affront to one's fellow-citizens and is essentially undemocratic. To keen men it is amusing.

An even greater peril is that of feeling personally the humiliations visited or attempted upon school superintendents almost everywhere. For various reasons, some people attempt to lower the office of superintendent. These attempts must be neither resented nor submitted to, but ignored.

Illustrations abound. The rich man who has sent all his children to private schools insists upon forcing into the superintendent's mind the fact that the public schools are charities for the poor. Similarly the man "of old family."

The politician, especially the political "boss," desires the superintendent to know that when he "says the word, out the superintendent goes." Is not the superintendent a creature of his favor? The self-reliant man knows that he is not unless he chooses to be.

The successful physician and the successful lawyer, living elegantly in their own homes, pity the superintendent, knowing that he works as hard or harder, but had not the wit to go into their line of work. They forget that their professions, upon the economic side, are less fully developed; that in the course of time, physicians and lawyers may serve, not for fees, but for salaries; that the private physician may relapse into the rank of the private school-teachers, and the public physician will develop into the rank of the public school-teachers. The enormous growth of the free dispensaries in cities, the development of medical inspection in schools, the increase of public hospitals and asylums, and the growing power and activity of boards of health all seem to presage the day of free, that is, government-supported, medicine and surgery.

7. The seventh peril of the superintendent is that he will talk either too much or too little. Much of his work is judicial, and needs close

reasoning and little speech. Much of it is inspirational, and needs imagination and exposition. The man who talks too much cheapens himself; he who talks too little, loses many an opportunity to do good.

There are always people about who are trying to "draw" the superintendent. They mean to get him to commit himself, often before he has seen fully the conditions involved in a matter. But there are also many persons about who fear his power, and who would be delighted never to hear from him at all. A few words fitly spoken often spoil a scheme.

In a certain city, a plan injurious to the largest interests of the city had been decided upon by the leaders. A casual remark of a person who had heard of it but was considered too unimportant to be pledged to secrecy (sometimes such a pledge is a guarantee of publication) caused the superintendent to go to one of the persons involved, and to make inquiries. He was given the facts, and asked to say nothing, whereupon he flatly told his informant that he had come to get public information. A half-column in a local paper that same day broke up the plan and the conspiracy at once.

8. The next peril of the superintendent is running into debt and borrowing of politicians or rich men, or persons interested in local school affairs. Going into debt beyond one's assets is often unavoidable by a man who has no control of the amount of his income, and no way to supplement it. Two thousand dollars is perhaps an average salary of school superintendents in communities of from eight to twenty-five thousand inhabitants. What does this mean?

It is received by a man who undoubtedly went into teaching immediately after graduation from college, and who succeeded rather better than most of his classmates. This man, with perhaps the interruption of a year or two of post graduate work, has given his entire time to school work, which is non-economic. He has handled money once a month to receive it, and for a few days more to expend it. He has had special uses for money. From twenty to thirty years of age he has earned one thousand dollars, or at most fifteen hundred dollars a year. Now as a school superintendent, at thirty-five or forty-five years of age, he probably has a family to support. Few bachelors attain school superintendencies.

Being a man of intelligence and self-reliance, he has saved perhaps a tenth of his salary annually. It requires no great calamity to throw such a man into debt.

This two thousand dollars' salary may be paid in a city remote from large centers of population, where food is relatively cheap and house rent relatively low. But, on the other hand, his circumstances may be these, namely:—

A thriving suburban city where the standard of living for the families with whom his own associate is high; a son in college; a daughter in the normal school; smaller children at home; an invalid and aged mother, and a wife whose very culture is a bar against her doing her "own work," because she sees other things still more important to do. Already he has drawn upon his savings to educate his children. Precipitate upon this man any form of financial calamity, and he is forced into debt. Of whom shall he borrow?

He cannot try to carry "back bills" with the tradespeople; that would hurt him in politics. Besides, "forced loans" are against his principles, and he objects to borrowing of poor people. Local politicians will be glad to lend him money; that is an easy way to buy him. Rich men will not object; they like to "play philanthropist" in such circumstances. Persons for any reasons interested in school contracts or purchases are ready to lend.

The man who has no assets,—no real estate, bonds, stocks, notes,—should avoid all these men. That way lies danger. Let him borrow, when he can, of a regular banking institution, getting his creditors to take and indorse his notes. Failing that, let him sell his books and his furniture. In several instances, a move of this sort, *bona fide*, under pressure has forced an increase of salary from a reluctant community. Failing that also, *let such a man go out of the profession*, as many another good man has done, for this very reason, and let him go into a line where his debts will not be a matter of public knowledge and concern. This is the only way to save character and reputation, for the insolvent school superintendent loses both, and soon after loses even the superintendency.

Credit is a bribe to extravagance. No poor man ought ever to buy anything on credit except the necessities of the physical life; namely, food, clothing, medicine, fuel, and shelter.

9. A similar important peril of the school superintendent is in underestimating the value of his services as his experience increases and his community grows in population. There is, perhaps, no one respect in which school superintendents as a class do more to block educational progress than in their failure to press upon their

communities¹ their own claims for financial improvement. The man who supervises ten schools and a hundred teachers may not be worth twice the salary or give twice the service of the man who supervises five schools and fifty teachers, but he certainly is worth more because a higher order of ability is required. As one's schools grow in number and in attendance, an increase in compensation may well be requested and worked for. The older a man is, as the head of a family, the more money he requires.

Perhaps no criticism is more unfair than the criticism of some teachers of the superintendent's salary. It is almost invariably true: —

I. That where the superintendent's salary is relatively high, teachers' salaries are high, and that where his salary is low, theirs are low.

II. That the man who cannot secure an increase in his own salary can do very little to help teachers get increases.

III. That women's salaries as teachers, supervisors, and principals, are relatively nearer the incomes of business women, and that men's salaries as teachers, supervisors, principals, and superintendents, are much farther below the incomes of business men.

The greatest school problem is how to double the salaries of experienced women teachers, and of experienced men supervisors. This is not for the sake of the individuals themselves, but for the sake of securing a better quality of ability in the teaching profession.

10. The last important peril of the superintendent is in too closely identifying himself with some local and partial institution or society.

Joyously as the tradespeople welcome the arrival of the new superintendent to get his "trade," not less joyously do church people, lodge enthusiasts, and party workers welcome him. Doubtless he is already a member of some church, or at least a regular attendant, and a member of several secret societies, and a partisan to a degree of some great national party. He is now asked to join a church and to take a Sunday-school class, probably the Bible class, and to come regularly to prayer meeting and "take part." The lodges with which he is identified by

¹ See Chapter XVI, "Salary, Tenure, and Certificate." The question whether salaries would rise faster, if all successful superintendents declined calls to other communities at higher salaries, is not easily answered. Large cities often let successful superintendents go rather than increase their salaries, because they know there will be many applicants for the vacancy. On the other hand, small places would perhaps never raise salaries except for fear of losing satisfactory men. But over against this is the fact that the man who has been a long time in a place is the man with the largest influence and therefore most able to secure a salary increase. Since he was willing to stay so long for such and such a salary, why should he now wish more pay? Other conditions being equal or better, let him change for a twenty per cent increase.

transfer may give "spreads" in his honor, and other lodges will seek his support. All the working members of his own national political party seek him out for "contributions" at least, and probably for "speeches."

He is certainly upon the horns of dilemma. *In medio tutissima via* is the only maxim that should guide him. "When in doubt, do nothing" is the only caution that can save him. "When asked in a hurry to give a reply, I always answer, 'No,'" said one successful administrator of schools.

The "superiority of politics over divinity" is indeed, as Lord Acton says, the keynote of the modern age. The Church as a universal institution has passed away. There now survive many separate churches. In theory, most of the churches have no barriers against each other. Membership transfers are arranged amicably. But there are many non-churchgoers; a full majority indeed of the people of most cities seldom or never go to church. Further, though religious differences, except as between Roman Catholicism and orthodox Protestantism, are almost forgotten, social rivalries are keen. In a small city, a school superintendent who desires the support of as many people as possible, and the opposition of none as a class, can seldom afford to identify himself as an enthusiast with one particular church of a single denomination. A school superintendent who is a strictly non-churchgoer will arouse less opposition than the man who is also a Sunday-school superintendent and a weekly exhorter at prayer meetings.

The thoroughly educated, widely informed school superintendent finds it extremely difficult to express himself in the religious and theological language of any church. He is accustomed to think in the terms of ethics, of economics, and of politics. He is accustomed to think of the interests rather of an entire community than of a single church. Further, he usually needs part at least of Sunday for rest and several evenings in the week for school work.¹

The school superintendent who understands that the sole use of politics is to promote the public welfare, and who, in the ordinary sense of the term "politics," takes no part in them, may look upon his educational service in a particular community as a campaign with battle after battle. When he so considers it, he must remember that it is possible to win the

¹ A school superintendent prospered for several years. He then became a Sunday-school superintendent. His wife entered upon the propaganda of rational Christian Socialism. His tenure became weak, and his superintendency terminated within two years.

campaign though losing most of the battles. He should in fact consider every battle wholly with reference to its relation to the campaign. It is often worth while to fight a battle, though anticipating certain defeat. A year or two later, in another battle fought for the same purpose and on the same lines, he may be able to win victory. In his relation to the board of education during the progress of all his educational battles and campaigns, he must remember that he is the only man who intends to remain throughout life in the work of education, and that therefore of right and of obligation his interest in educational progress greatly exceeds theirs.

A progressive superintendent may look upon his lifelong service in the cause of education as a series of years of plowing, planting, cultivating, and harvesting. When he so considers his educational service, he will remember that it is as important to harvest the crop properly as it is to prepare the ground and to cultivate the growing crop. Apparently, more school superintendents fail at harvest time than at seedtime. To carry out the analogy, he will remember that every crop depends upon the nature of the seed sown; that the quality of every crop depends upon the soil in which it is sown, the kind of cultivation, and the influences of the season. In other words, the school superintendent will give no slight attention to planning and reflecting upon his purposes, his ends, his methods, and the degree and character of interest that he takes in the cause. In the long years, the man of reflection will render far better service than the man of impulses.

No man can afford to fight too many battles, to present too many issues. He loses too many different sets of friends thereby, and makes too many enemies. There are two other matters that are not "perils," but temptations.

1. The ambitious and wide-awake superintendent is apt to see good business opportunities for "the investment of a little money." His savings are earning perhaps four per cent in the savings bank or five per cent in a mortgage or two. He thinks he sees a chance to make ten per cent. Shall he do it? If the chance leads him to lend his money out of his reach by easy and cheap visiting, no, not by any means. He may get forty or fifty dollars a year more out of an investment of one thousand dollars, but he will spend more than forty or fifty dollars' worth of time thinking about it. If the investment is local and all its conditions are well within his knowledge, and if he knows that the board will not refuse to increase his salary on the ground that

he is already able to save a lot of money, yes. Some personal touch with business is a good thing for the educational administrator.

To illustrate: He may lend money to a tradesman or small manufacturer who desires to extend his business. Or he may go into partnership (silent) with a carpenter, or mason, or other contractor, provided that none of them does any work for the schools. It is not politically wise to help to finance a local newspaper, unless it is the only newspaper. The purchase of vacant land as a speculation seldom makes political or personal enemies, though it sometimes makes men poor. To become a "taxpayer" is usually a wise move, and one to be made as soon as possible.¹

A form of this temptation is the purchase of a home. There are reasons for and against this. With building and loan associations in almost all communities of any considerable size nowadays, it is usually possible to buy a home. The advantages are as follows, namely: —

I. Relief from the guardianship of an interested landlord.

II. Settling down in one's property and avoidance of moving annually, thus creating a home.

III. Entrance upon the rank and dignity of "taxpayer."

IV. Giving the public to understand that one is not restless and inclined to "throw everything up" and to "try things over again" elsewhere.

V. Setting a good example to families inclined to prefer tenancies to permanent social relationships.

The disadvantages are as follows, namely: —

I. During the first few years the danger of being forced to sell out at a loss when leaving. Improved real estate falls in value ten times where it rises once. The buildings deteriorate faster than the value of the land increases.

II. Giving the impression that one thinks one owns his superintendency; this is "bear baiting" the politicians and the critics.

III. The heavier expense until the home is paid for. The annual costs of a home with a heavy mortgage are higher than most annual rents. Few men can afford to invest their own or their relatives' money in home real estate. The interest earned is less.

IV. The necessity of declining offers of positions elsewhere unless the salary is much larger. This, however, is not wholly a disadvantage to the individual and is almost always a good thing for the community.

¹ See page 158.

In general, for men with families after the second year in a community, it is best to purchase a home. The second is the critical year. Even competent men may fail of reelection then. Competent men are seldom discharged after three years' service. The public by that time knows them.

2. A second temptation is that of trying too many issues at a time with the board of education and the public; and of trying big issues and small at the same time. The wise superintendent throws many small issues upon leading progressive board members, principals, and supervisors. A board of education gets tired granting too many requests to one man; the superintendent makes too many different opponents by asking too much at a time. A new school superintendent found that the community whose election he had secured had:—

No kindergartens, no male teachers, no supervising principals, no science laboratories, no definite English course in any school, no Greek or French in the high school, no Nature study, no superintendent's office and no superintendent's secretary, no ventilation systems, no sanitation systems, no evening schools, not enough schoolhouses, no adjustable desks, no all-day janitor service, no slate blackboards, not enough text-books on the "approved list," not enough books and supplies, not enough library books in class rooms, no school decorations, no evening free lecture course, few high school electives, no manual training, no physical training, no compulsory attendance, no medical inspection, and not enough money for school use.

In the course of ten years, he got all these and more, but he got them one or two at a time. He lost many a battle, but not the campaign. For one opponent, he made five allies. He says there are other things to get:—

More money for higher salaries, finer school buildings, more supervisors, an added high school year, etc., etc.

This superintendent would certainly have been defeated for his first reelection, had he attempted to secure all these things at once. "See how Nature does things, how quietly, how surely," was a favorite saying of Charles Pratt, the philanthropist who founded Pratt Institute. Verily, "Rome was not built in a day."

It is extremely unwise to announce all of the program for educational improvement to even the best supporters of progress. The ablest and most progressive layman is not ready to go forward as fast as the really competent and progressive schoolmaster. When any school

superintendent finds that any board member is as progressive and intelligent about school affairs as he is, the hour has struck for that school superintendent to go a-visiting and to read some modern educational literature.

The complexity of a superintendency is due to manifold, multiform relations.

1. The most immediate of the relationships of a school superintendent is that with the board of education.¹

The board legally controls the schools, more or less with the advice of the superintendent of education. It represents the democracy, he represents the schools. It represents governmental power, he represents cultural influence. He is its minister, to give its orders to the school; it is his messenger to inform and persuade the public. The board is impersonal, a soulless, because a deathless, corporation. It owes him money from time to time; he owes it counsel and assistance all the time. The man who would wittingly and willingly violate an order of the board of education or deceive it as to the truth is unfit to serve as a school superintendent. He whose conscience orders him to disobey hears falsely the voice of duty, for conscience tells that man to resign. And then when he resigns, the conscience of the public will order the board to reinstate him after withdrawing its order.

2. The next near relationship of the superintendent of public instruction is with the officers of the board of education and with the chairmen of its several committees. In the absence of board resolutions and pending board meetings, the officers and the chairmen constitute with the superintendent the governing authority. He owes to these men truth and good advice, and they owe to him the same,

¹ See Chapter II, "The Board of Education." See also "Index":—Board of Education; Superintendent.

together with support in any emergency. The board member who, when the superintendent calls, pleads "private business," must be sure that he is entirely justified by the extraordinary importance of that "private business." It is the essence of the democratic scheme that public business is paramount. This is true even though the board members serve without pay. The member who frequently pleads "private business" is in great danger of serving without honor as well as without pay.

3. Similarly, with every board member, the relationship of the superintendent ought to be one of entire frankness. The worse the board member, the greater should be the superintendent's effort to lay open to him all the facts.

To illustrate: A superintendent visited a very antagonistic board member, spending several hours, and earnestly advocating a certain policy. Years followed. The board member voted consistently against the superintendent and all his progressive measures. Later, the superintendent was amazed to hear this particular man arise in a public meeting and advocate one of the superintendent's measures, pronouncing him the most far-sighted man in the community. Next year, as usual, he voted against the reappointment of the superintendent but his was the only vote on that side, for he had lost his power with all other members of the board. None could any longer be convinced by his words that the superintendent was too costly a luxury. To illustrate again: For several years, a certain board member continued obdurate. Without warning, he suddenly changed. When asked his reason, he replied: "That man is sincere. I don't agree with him; but I have made up my mind that if he is wrong, he is stronger in the wrong than I am in the right." He never again voted against the superintendent upon an important issue.

4. A fourth relationship is with the supervisors.¹

In the very nature of their positions, the supervisors are nearer to the superintendent than any other teachers. They are employed primarily because he has not the time

¹ See Chapter VII, "The Supervisorship."

to give adequate supervision in their lines. They are his eyes to see and his hands to execute. Either their subjects are highly technical or else their fields are very broad. When their subjects are technical, individually the supervisors probably know more about their subjects than he does; but they do not see them in their relations with other subjects.

To illustrate: The difficulty of getting a good musician or artist as supervisor is so great that few superintendents in small cities care to add the further requirement that the supervisor shall know something definite about the general school course and see all the relations of art or music to the children's educational progress.

The school superintendent needs to have frequent regular conferences with the supervisors individually. He should inform them as to his objects and purposes, and they should inform him as to their methods and devices. Equally with the board members, the principals and supervisors are entitled to know the opinions of the school superintendent regarding their work and the general or special conditions in the schools.

The school superintendent should cause it definitely to be understood by principals, teachers, and students, among whom the supervisors go, that they are his official agents in schools and class rooms. All supervisors should file written reports of their visits and discoveries, and of the lessons given and grade meetings held by them. These reports should be systematic in form and should be made at regular intervals.

5. The fifth relationship of the superintendent is with the principals of the separate schools, and is the most difficult of all relationships to maintain satisfactorily. The reason for this lies in the customary tenure of principals. In any city school system where supervising principals are

regularly employed, their appointment is usually during good behavior. When they become unsatisfactory in their positions, the most that a superintendent can do is to recommend their transfer. This usually widens the breach of alienation between them, though it sometimes lessens the injury done to the school system by incompetent or disloyal service. On the other hand, the principals are the most important of the superintendent's subordinates. When the superintendent has been educated, as he should be, far more thoroughly than the principals; when his experience has been, if not longer, much wider; and when his natural ability is greater, — he usually has no serious difficulty in establishing and maintaining his leadership.

Every superintendent should consider every principal as the head of his school, and all directions to teachers should go through him or should be given in his presence. Frequently, when the superintendent visits schools, he should invite the principal to go to the class rooms with him. The principals should constitute a council to meet fortnightly with the superintendent for advice and discussion. The principals should be consulted invariably with regard to transfers and promotions of teachers, and, when possible, with regard to the appointment of new teachers.

All principals should be expected to file reports at regular intervals with regard to the progress of their classes and the quality of the instruction of their teachers. All minor matters, such as repairs and supplies needed, should be regularly reported. In general, the relation of the superintendent to the principals is that of an associate colleague, the superintendent having the larger field, and the principal having the smaller field, but dealing with it more thoroughly. In this way, the freedom of the principal finds room for enthusiastic activity.

6. The superintendent has relations with the teachers as a body and as individuals. He should hold several general teachers' meetings annually, and occasionally should go to the meetings of the grades and for special subjects. The grade meetings may have regular leaders, to be selected from the teachers or principals, while the meetings for special subjects are naturally led by the supervisors or by teachers especially appointed by the superintendent. In addition, there will be the meetings for their own teachers, conducted by the principals of the several schools.

In general, the teachers of each separate school form one body, to be dealt with as such. The superintendent ought to see that the corps of teachers of no one school is conspicuously better or worse than that of any other school. For the safety of his school system, he will place his strongest teachers with his weakest principals. Where he cannot discharge poor teachers, he will alternate the weak teachers with the good throughout the grades, so that no child will have two poor teachers in succeeding years. Lastly, he will place very good teachers in schools where the discipline is especially hard. He will cause an appointment to a bad neighborhood to be considered a compliment to a teacher's ability and character. Where teachers are known to be disloyal to principals, he will transfer them; and when the disloyalty continues in the new positions, he will find means to remove them from the school system.

So much for the relations of the school superintendent to the teachers as employees of the schools. He should be the attorney of every teacher personally and be ready to advise freely with each one on educational and personal matters. Undoubtedly, he should be known as an advocate for higher salaries for teachers. This is to-day the most important question before the American nation for

its positive social betterment. Many teachers are young and inexperienced; often they are far away from home. Many naturally have larger confidence in the superintendent than in the principals, both because the superintendent is nearer the board of education and because his responsibilities are heavier. There is a certain gravitation of those with burdens toward those who already have many.

Finally, every teacher should understand from the day of employment that in every case of discipline, irrespective of mistakes, the superintendent will support his or her authority. When the error has been so serious that he cannot do this, it will be sufficiently serious for him to request from the teacher an application for a month's leave of absence.¹

7. In the nature of the case, the superintendent's relation to the pupils must be somewhat formal. However, every school child who is old enough to understand the matter should know that he has the right of appeal to the superintendent, whether his parents go with him or not. The right of appeal is an essential feature of democracy. Without it, there can be no freedom and equality. The superintendent should occasionally visit the school assemblies and talk to the boys and girls on matters of ethics, athletics, and social relations. In the high school and in the higher grammar grades, the superintendent may wisely reënforce the instruction of principals and teachers in regard to alcoholic liquors, tobacco, gambling, loafing, practical joking, and like habits of imperfectly educated men.² But most of his talks ought to be inspirational, dealing with the highest ideals of men.

¹ For further discussion of this question see Chapter XVI, "Salary, Tenure, and Certificate."

² Whatever may be said about the morality of the man who visits saloons and who smokes tobacco on the street, it is certain that no one in the position of a teacher, whether as an

8. The next relation of the superintendent is with the parents. To them his office door is always open, and from them all letters are always welcome. The parents see the school with the eyes of adults, prejudiced doubtless in favor of their own children, and yet loyal to the schools because of their immeasurable helpfulness to children and families. The parents are rearing the children for the community and for the nation, expecting to get back no pecuniary return. The New World parent scorns the idea that on the labor of four or five children he can retire and live without work. The parent often has valuable suggestions to make. Whether mother or father, the parent is an influential factor in school politics.

To illustrate: In the first year of his school superintendency, the incumbent received many visits from parents; in the second year he received half as many; after that he received so few that he finally inquired of the chairman of the board what he thought this meant. The chairman, who had been in office several years before the superintendent was elected, replied that he, too, had had the same experience and was receiving no callers. "In fact, I almost have forgotten that I am chairman, except for board meetings." The cessation of calls meant two things: the removal of the causes of complaints, and the general cessation of revolutionary and misunderstood changes.

The superintendent should endeavor to meet parents in the various neighborhoods at the school parents' meetings. Hard as it may be upon his general spirits, he should expect that, wherever he goes, there he will meet persons desirous of talking about school affairs with him. He must remember that the sole reason why he is getting the public money of the community is that the citizens

executive or as an instructor, has any right to set before immature boys an example of drinking and smoking. Not to know this is to argue one's self unfit to serve as a guide for youth. The superintendent ought to encourage all outdoor games and all reasonable pastimes of the pupils. It is nothing short of sin to make the upper paths of culture seem forbidding to school children.

desire his services as an educator. They are not supporting him for his own sake. It is somewhat wearing to his nervous life to be forced to realize this fact every time he goes forth upon the streets, but in the small community there is no remedy for it. He can no more escape talk about education than the physician can escape talk about medicine or the lawyer talk about law.

The competent school superintendent can secure from every mother at least the praise accorded by a certain mother to one such man. She had been attending a mothers' club meeting, with a baby in her arms, and a child under six on each side. She seemed to be asleep while he talked. When he had finished she turned to the largest child, and said: "Did you hear that good man? He talked like a priest. I am sure he must be a good man."

The superintendent ought to be a wise counselor for all parents to see regarding the higher education of their sons and daughters. A good deal of this advice they will get from their pastors and from high school principals and teachers. But on many occasions they will need yet more light. This the superintendent ought to be able to give; and every board of education ought to stand ready to pay the superintendent's necessary traveling expenses to visit one or two higher institutions of learning annually, that he may keep in touch with educational progress.

9. The superintendent stands in the relation of professional head of the schools, and it is not best that he should have anything direct to do with the employment or efficient service of the janitors. This duty of oversight belongs rather to the principals.

The employment and the salaries of the several janitors are a chief concern of the building committee or, better, of the business manager. At the same time, every superintendent should be expected to report extra services of janitors, derelictions of duty, incompetence, and impoliteness.

Any school system in which the janitors are of such importance that they do not need to keep the schools clean, do not need to obey the orders of the principals, and do not need to be reasonably courteous toward teachers and pupils, is sadly topsy-turvy and in need of radical reform. It literally requires overturning. Similarly, a system of schools in which the janitors give only part time to their duties is a system necessarily weak in the material care of the schools; it reflects too much the poverty of the poor in the community rather than its wealth considered as a whole. When the janitor service is so poor or so poorly paid as to endanger the success of the educational work, there the matter vitally concerns the superintendent. He can always rely upon the support of the janitors in any effort to improve their income. Therefore, he ought to insist upon their improving the quality and amount of their service¹ when deficient.

Every regular visit of a school superintendent to a schoolhouse should include inspection of the conditions of the cellars, furnaces, yards, floors, halls, rooms, attic, roofs. A competent man will praise as well as censure. When he must always censure, he should report the facts to the building committee of the board.

10. The superintendent of public instruction has relations also with certain classes of persons not directly connected with the schools; namely, taxpayers, politicians, citizens, newspaper men, the general community, the State, and the nation.

The tendency in the progress of American political and legal institutions has been to make government a matter of property. This has been the inevitable tendency of every nation and of every civilization. In a peaceful and orderly population, property is made secure. It becomes the basis of taxation for the support of government, which, in consequence, logically tends to encourage its development. The political encouragement of the property-

¹ For a discussion of the qualifications of janitors see Chapter II, "The Board of Education." For salary see Chapter XVI, "Salary, Tenure, and Certificate."

holding class and their payment of the costs of government logically gives them interest and prominence in government. As a class, the owners of property are stronger men, and of firmer wills and more settled habits, than the propertyless,—the “proletariat,” as they are called in older nations. Every taxpayer feels a certain dignity and a certain comparative superiority among the citizens. With regard to every officeholder, he feels that his money is paying the salary. With regard to the schools, he feels that they belong to the taxpayers in a peculiar sense because public education is supported by their money.¹ The schools to some of them seem to be the taxpayers’ charities. In many communities, of the money raised for all municipal expenditures, the schools receive from twenty to forty per cent.²

The special relation of the superintendent to taxpayers is to enlighten them upon the principles of the incidence of taxation.³ Many of the heavy taxpayers are men who live without doing economic work. Such persons are a blessing to a community only when, in return for their unearned incomes, they do much for the ethical and æsthetic enlightenment of the people, by philanthropic services and gifts.⁴

¹ Even in such a State as New Jersey, where the schools are largely supported by State taxation of corporations, the local taxpayers regard themselves as the real sources of the school funds.

² Statistics gathered in 1901 from some fifty towns and cities in the northeastern part of the United States showed an extreme range from seventeen per cent to forty-five per cent. It was noticeable in these statistics:—

First, that heavy police expenditures go with light school expenditures, and heavy school expenditures with light police expenditures. In other words, the best-behaved populations spend most upon their schools.

Second, that communities with heavy general budgets, in proportion to population spend the least relatively upon their schools and those with light budgets spend the most. The extreme range per capita of school children was \$14 to \$56, the average for cities being some \$40. This amount is essentially inadequate. See Chapter XVI, “Salary, Tenure, and Certificate.”

³ See Seligman, “Taxation.”

⁴ See Veblen, “Theory of the Leisure Class.”

Occasionally, taxpayers place themselves in highly interesting positions by their haughty criticisms of the schools.

To illustrate: The father of a family of seven children, all in school, "ordered" a principal to do a certain service on the ground that he paid taxes. On inquiry, it was discovered that his total taxes were \$40, of which thirty per cent, that is, \$12, went to the schools. When told that, in return for this sum, he received \$225 worth of instruction for the children, he withdrew his order!

Similarly, a factory owner who paid some \$300 of school tax seemed much surprised when informed that twenty of his employees attended evening school annually at a cost of more than \$300, and that all were learning subjects directly helpful in his line of manufacture.

The superintendent does well to remember that the movement for free schools through all sections of our country is not yet two generations old. In certain districts the idea is still handed down in many families as a sacred tradition, that to tax a property owner for the education of other men's children is an invasion of his freedom and essentially an injustice.¹ Even in some fine communities here and there an influential man may still cherish this ancient notion.

II. Every school superintendent should be a politically minded man, able to deal effectively with all politicians by reason of superior insight, courage, and acquaintance with the general public. The superintendent has a very great advantage. His position is one of prestige. He is in office. After a year or two his friends and supporters should be well known to him. "Man," said Plato, "is a political animal." In a high civilization most of the best relations of life are made secure by the laws of the State. No sane man would dream of leaving questions concerning property rights or character and the permanence of

¹ This subject is more fully treated in Chapter XII, "The New Education."

the marriage relation to social good nature. Yet some sane men think that teachers do not need tenure by legislation. The public school teacher is wholly a political creature, getting appointment and salary by law. Let the law, therefore, be made complete and perfect.

In relation to politics two principles will guide the superintendent:—

First: He will not weaken himself by going out of his province of the schools to influence the community's general acts. He will have his own opinion and his vote; he need not conceal these; but the wise man in so great and peculiar an office will seldom try to influence others by direct appeals.

Second: He will protect his own province as far as possible from the entry of politics. When they do enter, he will endeavor to minimize their influence as far as possible. He will try to drive them out soon. The school is a temple of learning, the shrine of progress. Positive philanthropy is its sacred mission.

To the taxpayer and to the politician the superintendent will gladly give all facts that they may be willing to know.

To illustrate: After the installation of a course in domestic art a politician attacked the instruction in cookery, saying, "I hear they are teaching dish washing and potato paring at the high school."

"Right you are, my friend," replied the superintendent. "We have introduced the course to supplement the courses in words and worms."

Mystified, the critic replied, "What courses, did you say?"

"Oh, words, that is, language, literature, Greek, Latin, French, German; and worms, that is, biology."

"Why did you not call them so?" asked the politician, with some anger.

"Oh," said the superintendent, "I thought you desired plain talk along the lines of potato paring. Come up and see what we are doing."

The competent superintendent knows that the politicians will quote

and misquote him. When he does not talk, they will say that he is concealing corruption or extravagance or both.¹

Successful dealing with politicians may be illustrated further.

In a certain city a newly elected board member, who was a well-known local politician, immediately informed the school superintendent that he would "block that game," meaning his recommendation of a new additional schoolhouse.

"I must tell you something," said the superintendent. "I know a man on the board with several friends. He is going to support this project; and there is no abler man on the board than he."

In jealous indignation, the politician replied that he would defeat the plan anyway.

"Oh, no," replied the superintendent, "you cannot defeat this plan. You do not yet know what it is."

"Yes, I do," answered the board member, "and I am not going to be frightened out by a teacher."

"Now, Mr. D——," went on the schoolmaster, "I am going to lay before this man to-day every feature of the plan and all the reasons for it. When you get to the board meeting, you will not be able to defeat him, for he will know all the inside facts and will have the public behind him."

"What are the facts? I demand to know them, as a board member." Whereupon the superintendent unfolded the entire case.

Before the politician left, he inquired somewhat anxiously who the man was that the superintendent relied upon "to jam the thing through without debate."

"You, of course," replied the superintendent.

At the next meeting, the vote for the school building was unanimous.

As a general rule, politicians are far easier to manage than business men.

After many years of service, the "boss" of the dominant political party proposed to drive out the school superintendent for the public reason that he "owned" the board, was the "Tsar" of the schools, and "gave the people no chance in them" (referring to janitorships). His private reason was that the superintendent had defeated several proposed "jobs" in municipal affairs.

¹ Extravagant administrations are seldom corrupt. Similarly, corrupt administrations are seldom extravagant. Only clean men in office dare to attract much attention to themselves. Unfortunately, from this general principle, we should perhaps except at least one great State in the Union, and its greatest city.

The two men met in a large room, the reporters' room of a local newspaper. There happened to be present the editor, several councilmen, reporters, two officeholders, and others, for there was considerable excitement at the time in local politics.

"Your time has come," said the chairman of the party's local committee. "You've managed S——, and K——, and G—— (board officers and members of much prominence) long enough. We're going to cut the school appropriation \$20,000 and do away with the superintendency." Then he laughed; and his supporters were happy.

"You have cut out a large contract," said the superintendent. "You must convert S——, and K——, and G—— for a starter; or else their successors. Then you must also convert the general public."

"Oh! that's all fixed," the boss answered jovially. "I'm going on the board myself from Ward Four. I'll get the public behind me. I'll tell them you're too smart a man for the place: You're dangerous. Why, you've hypnotized¹ G——, the smartest native here."

"I never heard that he was smarter than yourself," put in the superintendent.

"Oh, yes, he is."

"Well," said the superintendent, "if I've converted the ablest man in D——, I'll convert you within three months."

"How?"

"By facts."

The "boss" was not allowed by his friends to run; and the superintendent had one old friend stronger than ever and a new friend also, both influenced by the public compliments and by the courage.

12. In relation to newspaper men, the local school superintendent ought to be friendly but judicious. The "knights of the pencil" live by "column rates" and by "scoops." The more news they get and the sooner they get the news, the more money they earn. As a general principle, the more the public knows of the public schools through the medium of the superintendent's office, the better. To the older newspaper men, the editors, the men

¹ This charge, now so frequently and generally applied to men with strong powers of persuasion, is a modern revival of the old superstitions of sorcery and witchcraft. A certain New England superintendent once said, "To make it is an admission of ignorance and weakness. To tolerate it is a regrettable necessity."

with families, the school superintendent who is wise will be especially friendly. They are men of intelligence, of responsibility, and of no little power.¹ To them may be communicated by letter or in person whatever the school superintendent desires to have widely known.

Among the matters that may well be published in local newspapers are the following, namely :—

- I. Financial statements.
- II. Attendance statistics.
- III. Appointments, promotions, and transfers of teachers.
- IV. The board's regular monthly public business.
- V. The sessions of the board of examiners.
- VI. Athletics.
- VII. Changes in courses of study.
- VIII. Changes in rules and regulations.
- IX. Public meetings at schools; school entertainments; parents' meetings; mothers' clubs.
- X. Addresses given by distinguished visitors.
- XI. Public addresses given by supervisors, principals, and others officially connected with the schools.
- XII. Certain parts of the superintendent's monthly reports (all personalities eliminated).
- XIII. The tentative plans regarding which the board or superintendent desires to sound the opinion of the public.
- XIV. Plans and specifications for new buildings.

In the event of a public attack upon the schools by the newspapers, there are several courses to pursue :—

First, the familiar policy of "dignified silence." This is wise when the facts are obviously against the newspapers and when the public really knows the facts.

Second, an immediate visit to the newspaper office or offices, followed by a communication to be published in the form of an "Open Letter."

¹ The educative influence of the public press through a period of years is incalculably great, while its power in a single campaign is usually slight. The general support of the schools by the press is far more important than the occasional advocacy of particular measures.

Third, securing the assistance of board members and other friends of the schools to make such visits and to write such letters.

Fourth, in extreme cases, calling a public meeting in a schoolhouse to discuss the matter.

Fifth, in such cases, sending out a circular letter to parents and citizens.

It is a sound principle not to resign because of a public or a private attack, unless the resignation was long since due, for incompetence or other unfitness.¹ To resign is to throw one's reputation and character into the arena. The man who does not resign keeps a wall at his back. Resignations are apt to be interpreted as weakness.

13. The superintendent takes the whole community for his parish.² He ought to feel a personal solicitude for its welfare in all respects, and a professional responsibility for its progress in culture. This solicitude should concern both the community as a whole and every individual in it. If there is to be any difference in his consideration for those who come within the range of his knowledge and acquaintance, he will give especial attention to the humble, the poor, the sinful, the ignorant. This is politically wise as well as ethically right.

To illustrate: A superintendent coming into his office for afternoon hours found a practicing physician, a rich man, and a washerwoman waiting to see him. He called the physician first because of the rights of sick patients. Then he called "Next." The rich man did not rise because he was third; nor did the washerwoman because she was afraid. Seeing the fact, he called her, whereupon the rich man rose and departed. The man of means came again next day and thanked him for his impartiality, and the laboring people of the city tell the incident to this day.³

¹ For the principle governing resignations, see Appendix .XII; also pages 99 and 175.

² See Chapter XIII, "The Educational Policy of the Community," where this subject is fully treated.

³ One of those "pests," the anonymous letter writers, in an offensive letter put the case

To all the citizens the superintendent is always accessible during his office hours so far as his work may permit. His office hours mean that he intends to keep at least that much time open to them. As a public servant, he is ready to see any citizen or business caller at any reasonable hour of any week day of the year. A man thus accessible is less likely to be annoyed by unnecessary callers upon trivial business than the distant and inaccessible man; a quick courtesy even in refusal often saves many a long controversy.

14. The superintendent lives not only in the conscious presence of the community, but in the presence also of the whole country. He takes pride in the fact that the graduates of his schools go east, west, south, and north, to do patriotic service in State and Nation. He desires to take pride also in the progress of the State of which he is a resident and possibly a native.

So great is the mobility of the American people to-day that a very large proportion of the superintendents in the larger communities are imported. Few educators serve in the State of their birth, and still fewer in their native community. It is a great advantage to a man to go in his maturity to scenes remote from his childhood.¹

15. The superintendent has a certain relation to former board members, especially to those who during their term of office were strong supporters of his policy. He owes to them remembrance and should send to them from time to time reports and news that are likely to interest them, especially reports of matters for which they worked, but

in this language: "You cater to the Catholics and the Jews. You associate with laborers. You don't know a gentleman when you see him. You are losing all your friends because you are always playing politics." This was some years ago. The superintendent is still in office there, at a higher salary than ever.

¹ This matter is discussed fully in Chapter XVI, "Salary, Tenure, and Certificate."

whose full realization perhaps they did not remain long enough on the board to see. He should also invite them to school functions and occasionally call upon them all, whether friends or opponents. He should sometimes see them to ask for support of special measures and sometimes for a general conference.

16. The relation of the superintendent to "reformers" is sometimes one of peculiar difficulty. A progressive school superintendent is himself a good deal of a "reformer." Education is the American gospel of individual and social salvation. The "reformers" are sometimes on the board. Often the cry of "reform" (which may be a cry for economy by reaction and retrogression) is the means by which a board member has secured his election. His relations become peculiarly difficult when the "reformers" desire to modify the curriculum so as to introduce instruction along the line of their "reforms." Usually, however, the "reformers" simply wish to secure one more enthusiast for their cause.

The entire duty of the superintendent in relation to "reformers" of this type is to treat them as members of a board for education, that is, to try to reform them. Of other reformers, their kinds are numerous. There are tax reformers, advocating the "single tax" on land, inheritance taxes, corporation taxes, the "unit of value" tax, or the income tax. There are temperance reformers, attacking saloons, licenses, cigarettes, morphine habits. There are social purity reformers. There are "equal suffrage" enthusiasts, who believe in equal rights of women with men.

There are educational reformers who believe in revolutionizing the schools at once. These enthusiasts read the ladies' monthly periodicals—and think that the schools ruin the health of children by discovering that their eyes are astigmatic, or farsighted, or esophoric, that their spines have curvatures, or that they are deaf in one or both ears. Or they think that the schools ought to educate only so far; that is, so far as they themselves were educated.

There are socialists, coöperators, philosophical anarchists, nationalists. There are spiritualists, Christian scientists, mind readers, mental healers. There are "direct legislation," initiative, and referendum apostles: "Populists," "Free Silverites," "Greenbackers," "Jacksonian" or "Jeffersonian" Democrats. There are antipapists, strong denominationalists, sectarians. There are tenement house reformers, university settlement people, slum students, sociological investigators.

Most of these persons are sincere, many of them are right, all of them flatter the educator by saying that they know that he has an open mind. Therefore, they throw down upon him their load of heavy ideas. Possessing almost infinite good nature, the successful school superintendent receives their messages and goes on to render his own service in his own way. He certainly never argues with them. Society needs more of some of them, as centers of beneficial moral contagion. Many of them hate disease, ignorance, poverty, selfishness, privilege, superstition, as the heavy handicaps upon the race of man. The superintendent seldom gives them money, for almost the only money he cares to give away, he gives to deserving boys and girls who are seeking by their own efforts to secure the higher education.¹

17. The superintendent has relations with various men who work for the schools, — architects, masons, carpenters, painters, text-book agents, library book agents, fire extinguisher agents, etc.

The architect should be the close adviser of the school superintendent. To him is given the opportunity of raising the standard of all future schoolhouses by building a new model building.² The school superintendent ought to endeavor to get ample funds for every new building so as not to cramp the architect's genius. When a building is to be erected by competition among architects and

¹ The greatest modern need to-day in philanthropy is of more and better colleges for women and especially of funds to help enterprising poor girls through college. Backward as many men's colleges are in methods of instruction, women's colleges are generally much worse. Hard as it is for boys to work their way through college (it is easier now than it used to be), it is ten times harder for girls to do so. This is the best of the familiar arguments for a State university in every State.

² See Chapter VIII, "The Graded Public School."

builders, the superintendent should see that his ideas are carried out by every competitor. If a board of education is willing to listen to a superintendent's advice regarding the care of the children's immortal souls, it certainly should be willing to consider his advice about the care of their mortal bodies.

For a superintendent not to care to get new schools upon ample grounds, of artistic architecture, commodious inside, and arranged and equipped for modern school work, is for him to shirk one of his most important duties.

Toward all builders the school superintendent's attitude should be that of the business man who intends to get value for money paid, and who desires to deal fairly with all honest men. In a large sense, the superintendent is an inspector of buildings and repairs, and is in the employ of the board for that purpose especially. Neither fear nor favor should sit between his eyes in respect to contractors.

Regarding text-book agents, the superintendent should welcome their coming and speed their going. Let him get from them in as short time as possible the good points of their books. Let them tell him the important school news. Let him be known as a man who always means to take the "best books." And let him be exceedingly careful to benefit in no way by their transactions with the board of education.¹

¹ It is a nice question in ethics whether a school superintendent is ever justified in accepting a book agent's invitation to luncheon or dinner. He must necessarily decline—

1. When the adoption of a text-book is pending.
2. Just after the adoption of a text-book.

The safe rule is never to accept meals or anything else whatever except free copies of books for examination with a view to use. Whether these books belong to the city or to the superintendent is another nice question. Most publishers prefer to have the books kept in the superintendent's office for the examination of teachers, and left there when the superintendent

18. The superintendent has obligations to all other superintendents who may call upon him for information regarding teachers and others. He may be tempted to speak or to write more favorably than his own judgment really warrants. This temptation to be kind to an individual at the expense of others must be resisted. The superintendent must remember that he will be judged by his own judgment of others. Soon, one who has helped everybody will be able to help nobody. In taking the opinions of others regarding teachers, it is well to remember that censure by some is really praise.

19. The superintendent in relation to teachers' meetings is a large topic of vital importance. How many shall he hold? Upon what subjects? Of what kinds?

The following is a suggestion:—

I. A general teachers' meeting at the beginning of or early in the school year.

II. A second general teachers' meeting in the winter.

III. Various professional seminars, with groups of voluntary educational students, from twelve to twenty-five in each seminar.

goes elsewhere. Other publishers prefer to have the superintendent keep the books at his own home and take them with him wherever he goes. In view of the thousands of books now published, the question involves many hundreds of dollars in every large city. As to giving recommendations for text-books the ethics are clear. Every educator owes it to the profession to praise good books and to condemn poor ones.

The leading man of culture in a community ought to be very loth to write recommendations of any books that he himself does not like well enough to buy. Further, a recommendation of a book is often misconstrued.

To illustrate: A certain generous superintendent wrote a letter praising a certain subscription work. The agent took the letter about the city and told ignorant parents that unless they bought the work for their children, the children would lose their promotions at school. In one ward seventy sets were thus sold. In fifty cases the superintendent compelled the publishers to release the purchasers from the contracts, since they were secured under "false pretenses."

"Do not sign your name to any paper" is a good rule of action for all school superintendents. Let every actual case be an exception. "Do not buy subscription books" is another safe rule. In most cases within a year or two they are for sale in secondhand bookstores at half price or less.

Of these, the superintendent should be the leader. Of other meetings, he should be an adviser.

At the first general teachers' meeting, the superintendent will discuss general matters, — the course of study, the relation of grammar and high schools, the profession and its interests, discipline, rules and regulations, compulsory education, the plans for the circles or seminars, the relations of teachers to supervisors and principals, the educational characteristics of the community. The superintendent will consider such of these from year to year as seem most important.

At the second general meeting, he will take up usually matters of accomplishment, ideals, particular subjects of the curriculum.

The main purpose of these general meetings is to bring the teachers together. Where a reception afterwards can be arranged, something of the nature of an "afternoon tea," and when a board member is willing to be present and to talk briefly, it is so much the better.

I call the superintendent's "circles" or "seminars" the mainsprings of educational progress.

The circle is conducted upon a plan like this:—

The superintendent is the leader and outlines the course for discussion for all the meetings of the season, that is, from ten to twenty sessions during the school year, avoiding any sessions in May or June, the annual period of greatest fatigue and the period for measuring the results of the efforts of the children.

To each member of the circle a special topic is assigned, for a twenty or thirty minute paper. Each discusses the argument of his paper with the leader before writing it out, and submits it for criticism a day or two before reading it. In the circle, it is read and discussed by all present. The leader then reviews the argument of the course to date and perhaps anticipates the next topic to be discussed. The papers are filed for later reference; at the end of the season an outline of the ground covered may be printed.

In this way may be taken up such subjects as —

1. Habit in Education,
2. Method of School Discipline,
3. Special Schools,
4. History of Educational Theory,
5. History of High Schools or Grammar Schools,
6. Pedagogical Literature,
7. Children's Games, Individual and Social.

Care must be taken that the subject be broad enough to offer enough definite topics for the consideration of the various members. When it proves too broad for a single year, it may be continued a year or more longer.

The "seminar" is conducted in an essentially different manner. In this each member of the seminar reports weekly upon the topic that he has selected for the season. As far as possible, all the members work upon the same class of topics. Each member begins with a thesis and an outline of the points that he intends to investigate and discuss.

There may be several seminars or seminars and circles in the same season. The fact that the sessions should not last over one hour necessarily limits the number of members of a seminar to a dozen or fifteen so that each person may report at each session.

The seminar may be in —

1. Psychology,
2. Pedagogy,
3. Philosophy,
4. History,
5. English Literature, or American, or Comparative Modern,
6. Economics,
7. Child Study.

To illustrate: The twelve students in a seminar for the investigation of philosophy of method may take such subjects as these: —

I. Philosophy of Method in Mathematics. Illustrative thesis. In elementary schools general elementary mathematics rather than arithmetic, geometry, and algebra, the specialized subjects ought to be studied.

II. Philosophy of Method in Nature Study. Three theses. (1) Nature study may be made the basis of geography and (2) of natural science and (3) may be carried on partly by a collateral course with English conversation and composition, and with art.

III. Philosophy of Method in Language. First thesis. Language study should begin only when the pupil is able to understand the logic of technical grammar. Second thesis. Knowledge of grammar is unimportant in the development of facility in expression.

By theses such as the above, all the studies of the curriculum may be reviewed philosophically.

Or to illustrate again: The fifteen students in a seminar for child study may take up, under the general subject, The Six-to-Nine Year Old Child, fifteen topics, such as these:—

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| I. Lies. | IX. Truants and Runaways. |
| II. Dramatics. | X. Love of Woods and Streams. |
| III. Dreams. | XI. Earliest Drawings. |
| IV. Ideas of God. | XII. Stories Preferred. |
| V. Ideas of Home. | XIII. Preference of Studies. |
| VI. Age at Entering School. | XIV. Ideas of Teacher. |
| VII. Sense of Honor. | XV. Anger. |
| VIII. Fear of Adults. | XVI. Aspirations. |

These seminars and circles require good school reference libraries.¹ Pursued steadily for a few years by a fairly permanent staff of teachers, the work of the seminars results in carrying the teacher far beyond the knowledge of any normal school or any college instruction in pedagogy. Teachers in such systems as foster postgraduate study and constant professional progress learn to diagnose their children's minds as skillfully as physicians diagnose their bodily conditions.

The work of the seminars takes time; but it saves time also, because it saves costly errors that consume time. Not many years will pass before all progressive communities will require as superintendent men of such broad scholarship that they will carry forward this kind of educational work easily and enthusiastically.

The reading circle with its conferences upon pedagogical, current, and general literature is also valuable. The superintendent of long service in a single community will perhaps alternate two years of seminars or circles with a year of reading circles.²

¹ See Appendix III.

² The question of the teachers' out-of-school professional work is further discussed in Chapter XI, "The Teacher as Administrator and Supervisor."

The superintendent who feels or fears that his community regards him as a failure often can revolutionize himself and the general public opinion of himself by wise and energetic reorganization of his teachers' meetings.

The specific duties to be performed and the particular records¹ to be kept by a school superintendent may be enumerated briefly as follows, viz.: —

I. Attendance at board meetings.

II. Attendance at committee meetings.

III. Preparing reports for the above and filing duplicates for record.

IV. Visiting: schools, classes, morning assemblies, special entertainments.

V. Calling upon board members, city officials, school officials of the State.

VI. Visiting: State normal schools, colleges to which high school graduates go, colleges that prepare teachers; and reports thereon to boards.

VII. Receiving visits from out-of-city educators, board members, etc.

VIII. Hearing complaints from parents and pupils.

IX. Keeping records² of —

1. Attendance,
2. Truancies,
3. Pupils reported to office for discipline,
4. Expulsions,
5. Library books,
6. Class text-books,
7. Apparatus of value,
8. Seating of schools.

¹ These records may be kept either in ledgers or in card catalogues. The amount of detail in the records must depend partly upon the number and competence of the clerks in the superintendent's office. In small schools, many minor matters may safely be intrusted to memory.

² These are duplicates of the records kept in the separate schools.

X. Keeping an official diary.¹

XI. Disposing of correspondence.

XII. Interviewing and visiting candidates.

XIII. Consulting with board of examiners.

XIV. Talking at school assemblies and elsewhere as the official head of the schools.

XV. Informing one's self thoroughly as to latest advances in school architecture, hygiene, sanitation, ventilation, lighting, heating, courses of study, text-books, scientific apparatus, college requirements, new educational methods and devices.

XVI. Attending teachers' meetings, educational associations, citizens' meetings, etc.

XVII. Holding teachers' meetings, and arranging others.

XVIII. Consulting with individuals, principals, supervisors, and teachers.

XIX. Dealing with suspended and expelled pupils, truants, habitual absentees, advising with the officers of the law upon misdemeanors of school children, etc.

XX. Organizing, or helping to organize, neighborhood or parents' associations, exhibits of school work, graduation exercises, school entertainments.

Even the best of school superintendents does well occasionally to examine himself to see whether he is not over-emphasizing some features of the superintendency and neglecting others.

Sometimes the estimable qualities of a school superintend-

¹ At a time of reflection, a certain superintendent was violently attacked by several board members who alleged that he seldom visited schools, and that when he did go to schools, he never visited class rooms. His diary was accepted by a majority of the board and showed the contrary conclusively. Another advantage of a diary is that it gives specific data for years back relating to unsatisfactory teachers, etc. Personal items do not belong in this official diary.

ent prevent him from dealing properly with school affairs. Some of the best men are apt to have affection for their official associates and like to hold them in esteem. When a board of education is composed almost wholly of mediocre men, these qualities of affection greatly weaken the efficiency of the school superintendent.

Of course, it is true that sometimes the tradesman with a small store is superior to his business. Yet it is commonly true that the extent of a man's horizon and the nature of one's vision of life are fairly represented by his occupation. No doubt, the exceptions are the very men who seem apt to get positions in public office. However, all things considered, a school superintendent who takes great care not to withhold plans of progress because of too great tenderness and too decided courtesy toward board members is undoubtedly the most useful man to his community.

In present conditions of the public law, board members who are elected are practically irremovable. The remedy is the recall, now in force in certain Western States. In 1907, the board members of the District of Columbia were held by the Supreme (lower) Court of the District to be not only irremovable but also unimpeachable for any cause. In such conditions, what shall the superintendent who believes his board to be incompetent or corrupt or indecent or otherwise disloyal to the cause of education do? He must not resign.¹ He must force the board to go on public record by discharging him. Meantime, he must appeal to public opinion, to the State Legislature, and to the profession. And when he goes out, it must up and out, for we must catch and locate him higher up.

¹ See page 99.

CHAPTER VI

THE PRINCIPALSHIP

IN almost every aspect except that of salary, the principalship of a school is the most desirable of all educational positions, unless one desires to pursue in a professorship some particular line of study. In salary, the principals of a community generally receive less than the superintendent, though quite as much as many college professors; at the same time, their professional expenses are less than the expenses of either superintendent or professor.

The excellent features of a principalship are as follows: —

1. By custom, the principal has usually a life tenure as good as, often better than, that of a college professor.

2. The principal has a definite line of duties, confined to a building with or without branches. He can regulate his day's work far better than the superintendent can.

3. The principal is one step removed from the political activities of the board of education. Wind and wave reach only the surface waters of the ocean.

4. The principal has free evenings and holidays, in the sense that he has few imperative professional engagements, such as board and committee meetings. He may, therefore, employ some of his evenings for professional study and investigation.

5. The principal has a definite school clientele, knows the children of his building, sees teachers daily, has time to consider parents' ideas, can make and keep close friends; and becomes often the pattern-saint of his neighborhood, sometimes the patron-saint also.

6. The principal can serve up to, even into, old age. The daily drain on his strength and nervous life is less than that of either teacher or superintendent. His school day is longer than that of the teacher, but he is less apt to have much home work. His burden is that of a

continuing heavy and somewhat monotonous responsibility in relation both to teachers and to pupils.

7. His social position is as good as, and often better than, that of the superintendent, because he can give some of his evenings to social calls, because he stays longer in one community, and because he is not usually suspected of being active in politics.¹

Principalships may be classified under two different heads: supervising and teaching principalships; and principalships of high schools and of elementary schools. For convenience they may be considered in order as follows, namely:—

- I. Supervising high school principalships.
- II. Teaching high school principalships.
- III. Supervising elementary school principalships.
- IV. Teaching elementary school principalships.

The general subjects of the principles of administration and supervision have already been considered at some length.²

Many of the suggestions for the conduct of the special office of the superintendency apply equally well to principalships.³ Further, the number of positions of Class I is relatively small in communities of from three to fifty thousand people, for which this book is especially intended. And in such cities the number even of positions of Class III is not large. Believing that the progress of American free common education is seriously retarded by reason of inadequate supervision, I present here the argument for more supervising principalships, as well as an exposition of the principals' special duties.

The point at which every principal-teacher should be relieved of part of his teaching duties by the assistance of a special teacher for his class room is when the school assumes its fifth or at most its sixth teacher. This is

¹ The traveler De Tocqueville, the historian Freeman, and the historian-jurist Bryce, each and all comment upon the fact that to be in politics in America is to be in a half-light of disgrace. In England and France, the scholars and rich men hold politics and political office in the highest esteem. Their wives and daughters regard politics as adding luster to the family name. Too often school superintendents are suspected of "being in politics."

² See Chapters III and IV.

³ See Chapter V.

equally true of high and of grammar schools. The complexity of the one, and the increased age of its pupils, make up for the larger number of pupils in the other.

The point at which the principal-teacher with a special assistant in his grade ought to become solely a supervising principal cannot be located within narrow limits; it may be when eight or nine teachers are employed, and it may not be until sixteen are employed.

A supervising principal is needed in the small school, —

1. When most of the teachers are young and inexperienced;
2. When several of them are incompetent;
3. When the general quality of the pupils is high or low, and they are poor either in their conduct or in their studies, or in both;
4. When the parents are very actively interested in the school and are frequent visitors;
5. When many changes in the course of study are in process of realization;
6. When the community and the board of education desire the best possible schools.

The appointment of a supervising principal may be delayed until the school is large, —

1. When all the teachers are mature and experienced;
2. When none of them are incompetent;
3. When the pupils are both orderly and intelligent;
4. When the parents are inclined to leave the school affairs wholly to the teachers.
5. When the course of study is not undergoing considerable changes;
6. When the community and board do not care to pay for the best possible schools.

The argument for supervising principals has been stated generally.¹ Its practical applications are implied in the discussion above as to what schools need supervising principals. The reasons may be given now *seriatim* and explicitly.

¹ See Chapter IV, "Supervision."

1. Because the more teachers the children have, the better. To give a school a supervising principal is to give each child two teachers, a class teacher and a consulting teacher. Many an injustice that otherwise would never be known is thereby avoided or remedied. When the class teacher is the sole arbiter, the child has no appeal. The class room tyrant is supreme in the school that has no supervising principal. A teaching principal is too busy with his own class to attend to details in other rooms.

2. Because when a supervising principal is employed, he invariably receives a higher salary than any class teacher has had, and therefore in almost every instance the school gains a better teacher than it ever had before. To raise the grade of a school, add better teachers of any and all kinds than it has and discharge the poorest, replacing them with the best.

3. Because by daily prolonged class visits, when necessary, the supervising principal can make almost every poor teacher into a good one.

In normal schools, the apprentices get at most but a few hours' practice daily for not more than a year. In a regular school, the teacher gets a full day's experience for year after year. With competent criticism good results are certain to follow.

To illustrate: In a certain school system, a certain ambitious teacher had been rated poor for several years. In the absence of a superintendent for the schools, no teachers were ever discharged. The installation of a supervisory force there was followed by the discharge of several hopelessly poor teachers without ambition. This particular teacher, after five years more of experience, these five under criticism, became a good teacher.

In other words, a good supervising principal can make a good school out of inferior teachers. As between schools with good teachers and no principals, and schools with poor teachers and new, good principals, the race for

comparative excellence will be short indeed. Within two years, the latter will easily and decidedly surpass the former.

4. Because a supervising principal can adjust nearly every case of misunderstanding between teachers and parents. He creates harmony and maintains coöperation.

5. In a large school without a supervising principal, the class of the principal-teacher cannot make good progress because of interruptions of his instruction, and because his time before and after school is given, not to preparation of instruction for the next day, but to general school matters. Therefore, in justice to the class, a principal without teacher's duties or with a special assistant should be employed in every school of considerable size.

6. The financial reasons are all for the appointment of a head for the school.¹

TWO SUPPOSED CASES

A grammar school of five hundred pupils.

I		II	
WITHOUT A PRINCIPAL		WITH A PRINCIPAL	
Average cost per pupil \$26.80 for instruction only.		Average cost per pupil \$24.40 for instruction only.	
15 teachers, 33 pupils per class teacher.		12 teachers, 42 pupils per class teacher; total, 13.	
1 principal-teacher	\$2000	1 supervising principal	\$2000
1 teacher	1200	1 teacher	1200
3 teachers at \$1000	3000	3 teachers at \$1000	3000
4 teachers at \$800	3200	6 teachers at \$800	4800
4 teachers at \$700	2800	2 teachers at \$600	1200
2 teachers at \$600	1200		
<hr/> 15	<hr/> \$13,400	13	<hr/> \$12,200
Average salary per class teacher	\$813	Average salary per class teacher	850
Per teacher	893	Per teacher	938

¹ All managers of labor understand the principle well. Six men will do more work when one directs and watches the other five than when all six work without a head.

Whether the principal of a large school should do any regular teaching is a debatable question; but whether he should do occasional teaching is not debatable. He should do some teaching, by way of example to others and to keep himself in practice. A few periods of instruction given by a competent principal each week keep him in close contact with the school's actual condition, interest and please the students, and are an inspiration to the class teachers. Except in the very largest city schools, where the principal is virtually a superintendent of elementary or high school classes, with fifty, eighty, a hundred and twenty classes, it may be, to supervise, boards of education and superintendents do well to require actual teaching by the principals. This keeps the principals in sympathy with the work of the teachers. Such regular teaching is especially desirable in the highest grades of schools in which no men are employed except as principals. Every boy and girl ought to have had some instruction by men before graduation from grammar schools.

The time so employed should be less in large schools than in small, and less in schools with young or generally poor teachers than in schools with excellent teachers. It may vary from a half hour to two hours a day, at the most, and be with or without a program assignment. Good principals usually teach too many periods rather than too few. But few principals are good enough teachers to take a class even for a half hour without some immediately previous preparation, such as a program suggests. This program should not be too absolutely fixed.

The much-debated question whether men or women make the best principals may now be considered in the light of the foregoing discussion. It may be taken theoretically or practically.

Theoretically, most men are far better administrators than women of equal education and experience. They

deal with affairs more broadly and more rapidly, and are far less influenced by details and personalities. Practically, men of executive ability are drawn away from teaching by the vastly greater financial and other rewards of business and the professions. Women are drawn away from teaching by marriage only, which in general secures the best-appearing and kindest-hearted women with the most pleasing manners, qualities by no means synonymous with executive ability.

Theoretically, as supervisors, men are better than women in respect to large interests, and worse in respect to close attention to minor details. Practically, at similar salaries the women who become supervisors are the best of their sex and compete with men who, as an average, are not equal to the best of their sex.

Theoretically, as representatives of the school, dealing with parents and the general public, the men command the larger respect and make the greater successes. Practically, many of them do not compare favorably with the best women.

Consequently, the decision narrows down to the questions of money and of the size of the school.

In this present decade of the twentieth century, in the smaller school systems with from one to ten thousand children, principalships carry salaries of from six hundred to twenty-five hundred dollars a year. Few high school principalships pay more. As salaries run and as candidates appear, the woman who commands one thousand dollars is more valuable to a school system than the man who commands not over fifteen hundred dollars; and the woman worth fifteen hundred or eighteen hundred dollars is capable of fully as good service as the man worth only a few hundred dollars more; but for the highest salaries,

such as are paid in the large cities where many principals are almost superintendents, few sufficiently competent women have yet appeared.

Even these loosely defined conclusions must be limited. For principalships in high schools, the man is to be preferred, provided a sufficient salary can be secured. This is especially true when a teaching principalship is vacant. Such is the man's superior executive gift, that he can do the administrator's work before and after school and between recitation periods. Cares of this sort worry most women. Since the teaching principal cannot supervise, for no one can do two things at the same time (despite the opinion of many short-sighted because parsimonious boards of education), a woman is out of place in a teaching principalship; her best service cannot be rendered there.

For principalships of elementary schools, the preference falls slightly to women while they are comparatively young and still have the maternal instinct toward children. Women principals, well advanced in years, who have never known family cares, are apt to be rather harder than men in their discipline. It is a well-known fact that most women prefer to teach under male principals, finding them more just, patient, and sympathetic.

The final conclusion is that as fast as possible salaries large enough to command the services of competent men must be secured. The feminization of the schools has gone altogether too far.¹ The pauperization also has gone altogether too far. Cheap schools cannot be good schools.²

The chief differences between the high and the elementary school principalships grow out of the difference in

¹ See Chapter VIII, "The Graded Public School," for a discussion of men and women as teachers.

² See Chapter XVI, "Salary, Tenure, and Certificate."

age of the pupils, out of the selected quality of the older pupils in the higher school, and out of the fact that the elementary school has a much greater range in age than the high school.

Practically, in our country to-day the education of boys and girls of from seven to fourteen years of age is universal. All children of those ages, whether native or foreign born, rich or poor, go to school. Nearly all of them are in the first five of the eight or nine grades of the elementary school. The children older than the average in the lower grades are the ones who do not complete even the grammar school education. After the average age of thirteen is reached, the expectation is that from fifteen to thirty per cent of the pupils will drop out of school every year.¹

Apparently, the difference in range of activity between the grammar school principalship and the high school principalship is greatly in favor of the former. In reality, the latter has greatly the wider range of duties and opportunities.

Nine years intervene between the five-year-old kindergarten child and the fourteen-year-old last year grammar grade child. It is a long stretch, and the change in physical size is very great. Four years intervene in the standard high school course.² It is a short stretch of years, yet the nature of the physical change is very significant. As for the mental change, it is indeed as great in the high school as in the grammar school. Further, in the case of coeducational schools, a great differentiation in mind and spirit has taken place in the high school. Finally, long as

¹ See Appendix I.

² The five-year high school course following an eight-year elementary school course — kindergarten, primary, and grammar — is likely soon to be the standard.

is the elementary school course, it is always narrow, and it always will be narrow, compared with the high school course. The subjects of the course that occupy the mind of the grammar school principal are fewer, the difficulty of teaching them well consists partly in their being too easy for adult minds to enjoy when once thoroughly mastered, and they are closely restricted to their elements. The subjects of the modern high school are many; some of them are difficult even for adults, and some of them are taught with considerable detail. A comparison illustrates these differences in subject-matter:—

GRAMMAR SCHOOL	HIGH SCHOOL (OR ACADEMY)
<p>Language. Reading. Grammar.</p> <p>English. Spelling. Composition. Declamation.</p> <p>German (elementary). Latin (elementary).</p>	<p>Languages. Rhetoric. Composition. Declamation.</p> <p>English. Debates and Orations. Literature. Shorthand. Typewriting.</p> <p>German. Grammar. Literature.</p> <p>French. Grammar. Literature.</p> <p>Latin. Grammar. Literature.</p> <p>Greek. Grammar. Literature.</p>

GRAMMAR SCHOOL	HIGH SCHOOL (OR ACADEMY)
Mathematics. Arithmetic. Algebra (elementary). Inventional Geometry. Bookkeeping.	Mathematics. Algebra (completed). Geometry (Plane and Solid). Trigonometry. Commercial Arithmetic. Business Practice.
Nature Study. Sciences (elementary). Physiology and Hygiene.	Sciences. Physical Geography. Botany. Zoölogy. Biology. Physiology. Physics. Geology. Chemistry. Astronomy.
Geography (general).	Geography (Commercial). Political Economy. Theory of Commerce. Commercial Law.
U. S. History and Civil Government (elementary). English History (elementary). General History (elementary).	History. American. Civics. English. Modern. Ancient. General. Greek. Roman. French.
Physical Training. Calisthenics. School Athletics.	Physical Training. Calisthenics. Gymnasium. School Athletics.

GRAMMAR SCHOOL	HIGH SCHOOL (OR ACADEMY)
Medical Inspection. Eye and ear tests.	Medical Inspection. Eye and ear tests, strength, etc.
Music. Songs. Class Training.	Music. Songs. Class Training. Individual Vocal Culture.
Manual Training. Sewing. Doll Dressing. Cooking. Paper Cutting. Knife Work. Scroll Sawing. Bench Work. Sheet Metal Cutting.	Manual Training. Dressmaking. Millinery. Cookery. Household sanitation. Bench Work. Wood Turning. Iron Forging. Iron Construction. Pattern Making.
Art. Drawing in various mediums. Water Color. Clay Modeling. Designing.	Art. Drawing in various mediums. Water Color. Oil Painting, etc. Clay Modeling. Designing. History of Art.
School Assemblies and Entertainments.	School Entertainments, Clubs, and Dramatics.

The courses above presented actually exist in many communities. The mere scholarship of a high school principal rises to a matter of considerable dignity. He must know as much of pedagogy and of psychology

(adolescent) as the grammar school principal knows of pedagogy and psychology (child study). A grammar school principal may reasonably aspire to know as much of every subject as any teacher. This is impossible to the high school principal, who has, as subordinates, specialists in their departments.

But for the fact that, in nearly all communities, some of the elementary schools have more children than the high school has, there would be even more disparity than there is now between the salaries of grammar and high school principals, in favor of the latter.

An essential difference between the two positions lies in the fact that, in matters of discipline and promotion, the elementary school principal deals with both child and parent, while the high school principal deals with the youth alone, unless he requests the parents' counsel. The modern American boy or girl is much harder to deal with than the typical parent, to whom he or she seldom appeals. Every high school principal needs to set aside time daily to consult with the pupils over discipline and studies, at their request as well as at his own initiative.

So much by way of comparison. The differences are obvious; but a demonstration emphasizes and enforces the facts. The comparison makes extended comment upon the specific duties of the different positions unnecessary. Special features of each principalship may be noted under the head of suggestions.

1. In the high school a wide range of electives (either as courses or as subjects) or of options is highly desirable.¹
2. It is very desirable that the pupils should look upon the principal as a man of peculiarly broad scholarship and of personally inspiring and enthusiastic qualities.

¹ A plan is suggested in Appendix VI.

This can be secured by judicious Monday morning talks on ethics, politics, science, and literature.¹ These should not bear upon conduct directly in relation to individuals or school discipline. Such remarks may be reserved for other days in the week. The wise principal will support judiciously the out-of-school interests of dramatics, of athletics, of musicals, and of scientific and historical excursions.

3. The high school principal does well to encourage all outside voluntary cultural movements, such as debating societies, science clubs, amateur photography, even stamp collecting. He ought to welcome every opportunity to bring together the high school alumni. Such as are out of college and in the way of earning incomes may be encouraged to join together and to present to the school such art objects as pictures, casts, tapestries, valuable books. Coming from the alumni or former students, these are treasured far more than those which may be purchased with public money.

4. As the foremost man employed in the schools, and next to the superintendent of all the schools, the high school principal owes to the superintendent a peculiarly loyal support, unless he desires to be considered as aspiring to the superintendency.² He should be close to the superintendent in all scholarly interests, and his personal friend without any rivalry. Apart from salary, the high school principalship is to the scholar and educator essen-

¹ It is true that all these matters are dealt with more or less in the class rooms. But it is often a great surprise and help to a boy to find that the high school principal knows and enjoys and can explain a great passage in poetry, or the great themes in ethics. A principal does a great deal more good by preparing carefully a Monday morning talk for the several hundred or more high school pupils who secretly or openly believe in him, than in any possible Sunday-school class teaching, not excepting the Bible class. Let him who thinks otherwise remember well that education is decidedly a sacred ministry to the most susceptible and hopeful of all human beings.

² For a discussion of the relative salaries to be paid to superintendents and principals, see Chapter XVI, "Salary, Tenure, and Certificate."

tially a more desirable position than the superintendency because of its security and of the immediate relations with aspiring youth, the happiest feature of all school work.

5. In the modern coeducational high school, the proportion of boys to girls varies from two to three, to one to two. In view of the fact that three times as many boys go to college as girls, this means that the public high school is a girls' finishing school chiefly, and only in part a general boys' and girls' college preparatory school. This means also that in American life, in the next quarter-century, there will be more women who are high school graduates than men. A high school principal cannot manage his institution solely with reference to the boys.

The needs, powers, and interests of boys and girls differ radically at the high school age. It is noticeable that few boys and many girls elect biology, French, or astronomy, while many boys and few girls elect Greek, trigonometry (or, indeed, any mathematics, when all mathematics are elective), physics, or geology.¹ As a general proposition, a school whose required course is hard enough for girls, is too easy for boys.

The following differences in the management of boys from that of girls are suggested to be made, when it is possible to make any; as indeed it seldom is, in public high schools where the number of teachers is almost always too few.

I. Boys should have fewer lessons and longer ones daily than girls. *Per contra*, girls should have more lessons and shorter ones daily than boys.

II. Boys should follow a subject out to the end: their principle is

¹ Any high school teacher who follows up this matter in statistics and in personal inquiry among pupils will discover in the course of a few years highly interesting facts and reasons. To illustrate: Girls' preferences for French and astronomy are undoubtedly due to the traditions of the past, when to read and speak French was the proper accomplishment of a "young lady" and when astronomy was the one and only science studied by young ladies. The interest in biology is due to various causes, of which the chief is its nearness to embryology, a subject of peculiar significance to women.

thoroughness. *Per contra*, girls should learn the elements of many subjects.

The reasons for the kind and amount of work for the girls are: that girls tire more quickly than boys; and that they need to have aroused in them early as wide a variety of interests as possible. In married life, a woman's horizon is limited. The woman with a family of little children needs to have a mind well supplied with a variety of recollections.

The reasons for the kind and amount of work for the boys are: that in mature life, by reading newspapers, and associating with many men in daily affairs, their minds become broadened; and that a man's success in life depends on the thoroughness and accuracy of his special knowledge.¹

6. Because every high school is judged educationally by the quality of its graduates who go to college or into business, the high school principal ought to be consulted in all selections of teachers for his school. The principal should be such a man as the superintendent is glad to consult, and the superintendent should be a man sufficiently superior to the principal that the latter will be willing to leave the final decision to him.

7. Because the graduates of the high school go to the colleges, the principal should annually visit a few higher institutions of learning to see what the conditions actually are, and to note changes.² By this means also he is able to give intelligent advice to parents and pupils regarding higher institutions of learning. Unless the public school educator makes such visits, he is apt to regard his own college as either the only college to which to send students, or the only one to which *not* to send them. Such is the prejudice or the perversity, the gratitude or the ingratitude, of our human nature.

8. As the high school prepares for the normal school

¹ For a discussion of the causes of failure in the high school, see my monograph, "Why Boys and Girls Fail."

² See Chapter XVI.

or college, so grammar schools prepare for the high school. Being in the same community, the principals and teachers of each school should exchange visits a few days in each year. Great good is certain to follow.

It is a tradition among teachers that the preceding teacher always did his work badly: children are never "up to grade." The reasons for this appearance are two: children's brains are growing; old cells disappear; old associations are lost. This is the cause of their amazing progress. And in the second place, no one ever appears well before strangers. Those teachers who at the end of a month or six weeks see a great improvement in a class are foolish to flatter themselves. In truth, it is the good work of the preceding teacher coming to the surface again.¹

9. Upon the grammar school principal falls a heavy burden of discipline, due to the presence of many "belated" children in the grades and of many children attending only because of parental or legal pressure. The wise principal will try to prevent the multiplication of "inefficients" and "immorals," as well as of "illiterates."² He will think of his graduates, the school-graduated and the self-graduated, under these heads, as adults-to-be, namely:—

- I. Literate, efficient, and moral.
- II. Literate and efficient but not moral.
- III. The literate but neither efficient nor moral.
- IV. Illiterate, inefficient, and immoral.

He will then subdivide classes II, III, and IV as either made so by heredity, that is, the naturally deficient,

¹ The aim is not to "run a good school," but to save, to help, to improve the children as much as possible. It makes a school better so to discourage a dull child as to drive him away (after the compulsory age limit is passed), but it is not sound educational practice to do so.

² See Part III, Chapters XIX and XX, *A Theory of Motives, Ideals, and Values in Education*.

or as being such of mere willfulness. All these deficient and defective students he will study daily and hourly.

Because of his interest in them and of his interest in the nation, he will endeavor to secure for his school: —

- I. As good teachers as possible; ¹
- II. As wide and rich a course of study as possible; ²
- III. As good an equipment as possible; ³ and
- IV. The best possible administrative system. ⁴

With all the prestige that attaches to the high school, the actual education, the awakening power, is rather in the elementary school. To illustrate: Noticing the improved dress of the children in a certain new school, the superintendent commented thereon. Whereupon one little boy said: "My father says I cannot go to a fine clean school any more in dirty clothes. And mother says father quit drinking so as to save money for my new shoes." Other significant things were said by the children upon the same occasion.

10. The well-educated and experienced grammar school principal is almost invariably an enthusiastic apostle of kindergartens for all children below six years of age. Whether the children of well-to-do homes, whose mothers have time to work and play with them, should go to school before eight or nine years of age is not the real question in issue. Most mothers in American life to-day are too busy or too ignorant to do anything for their children during the daytime. It is a question of neglect at home,

¹ Every elementary school needs male as well as female class teachers, college as well as normal school graduates, and both young and old teachers.

² Herein lies the argument for manual training, that it works for the removal of inefficiency, and the argument for the elective course, that by its variety it has something to interest all.

³ The discipline and the intellectual activity of boys and girls in fine buildings with excellent equipment always are better than in poor buildings. Poverty is a curse, a curse to the child as well as to the adult, to the individual as well as to the nation. The poverty of most American schools is a deliberate and avoidable curse, due to the ignorance, the indifference, the avarice, of a majority of the community. Over and over again, statistics have proven that to tear down a miserable building and to erect a better one is permanently to improve health, attendance, scholarship, and conduct.

⁴ The question of grade is discussed in Chapter VIII, "The Graded Public School."

often of play on the street, and of care at kindergartens for most children in towns and cities. A child under six is too young seriously to undertake the learning of reading, writing, spelling, and numbers. The kindergarten, with its drawing, weaving, games, numbers, letters, songs, is a very good place for the child, almost as good indeed as a model home.¹

II. The question of the relation of the principal to the board of education has been answered indirectly at various points in the preceding pages. In a well-conducted and coördinated school system, no board member will go direct to a principal with orders; and no principal will go direct to a board member with complaints. Officially, board members and subordinate educational employees have no relations other than those of courtesy. The principal is an employee of the board of education as a corporation, and is not the employee of any board member. Between himself and the board of education is an intermediate officer, the superintendent. In emergencies, a principal may do things of an unusual nature, at the suggestion of a board member or of anybody else. When he does exercise this discretionary power, which is inevitably lodged in his hands, he does it as a principal, not as an employee, and is answerable to the superintendent. Nor is the plea of an order from a board member any defense for an error. Unless this principle is strictly adhered to, chaos at once sets in. When a principal feels strongly that he must go with a complaint, not to the superintendent, but to a board member, he virtually asserts the incompetence or the prejudice of the superintendent.

¹ Throughout this book, here and elsewhere, except so far as they are related to administration or supervision, all purely pedagogical matters are omitted. Our concern is, how to run a successful school system whose purpose it is always to do the largest possible service in the community.

It is a singular and an instructive fact that only ward schools and almost never high schools suffer from failure to follow this principle. The cause is the lower position of the head of a grammar school, because his jurisdiction does not cover the city, and because he has small children.

12. It is true of all principals that they are expected to keep longer hours at school than any teachers. They conduct teachers' meetings after school. They hold private individual consultations with teachers. There is a tendency in country districts and in the smaller cities for teachers and principals to remain too long after school. Children are detained too long. The opposite tendency in certain large cities, for teachers to do no preparation, to come to school late and to leave early, has the advantage of being in the interests of health for all concerned.

As a general proposition, for schools with sessions from 9 A.M. to 12 M., and from 1.15 P.M. to 3 P.M., the principal should be at the school by 8.15 A.M., and the teachers by 8.30 A.M., and the teachers should leave by 3.45 P.M., and the principal by 4.30 P.M. In the long run of the years, allowing for occasional exceptions for a longer stay, once a week at most, the school will be all the better when these comparatively short hours are kept.¹

All teachers ought to leave their buildings at noon for the outdoor air and ought to eat "hot lunches."

Such may be considered the special matters to engage the attention of high and grammar school principals in the smaller cities.² Occasionally in such cities there are train-

¹ The grade meetings and the seminars after school, when not over an hour long, are a real blessing, in that they take the teacher out of doors to a different building, and establish the habit of leaving school early. The old fashion of going to school at 7 A.M. and staying till 5 P.M. was well enough in the days when school-teachers spent half their time sewing and knitting and doing fancy work, while the scholars "worked sums," chopped wood, and played "tit-tat-to." The business system of supervision gets more educational work done now in a day than used to be done in a week, with a corresponding increase of nervous wear and tear of teachers and pupils.

² The broad principles were discussed in Chapter III, "Administration," and in Chapter IV, "Supervision."

ing classes for teachers, vacation summer schools for children, evening schools, reform or parental schools and playgrounds, manual training or industrial schools, and primary schools.

A training class in connection with a high school course in any city of less than a quarter of a million people is a possible peril to its educational interests, because of the temptation to the board of education to make its course a "short cut" into the teaching positions of the schools. Undoubtedly, it is better to take as teachers the graduates of such schools than to be compelled to take those who have been in the high school only without a later pedagogical course. A two years' course after graduation from a four years' high school course is the least duration that should be considered at all. Three years is little enough. The ordinary college course after high school graduation is four years. And no young woman should begin teaching under twenty years of age. It is far better to begin at twenty-two than at nineteen, because the health is better established and the character is more soundly developed.

The difficulties of the training class or training school in the small city are these, namely: —

I. Of getting enough money for the support of the work. Training school teachers should be more proficient and should have higher salaries than high school teachers. And there should be a teacher for each year of the course, and an extra teacher for every group of apprentices beyond sixteen in number in each grade. That is, forty students in a single year require at least three teachers; or twenty students divided into two years require two teachers. Otherwise, there can be no proper and adequate training.

II. Of getting adequate accommodations for the training classes. A great objection to the graduates of many normal schools, until very recent years, has been that they were trained in poor school buildings and had poor standards of work. In consequence, their standards of physical equipment have been low.

The principal of such a local school needs to be ambitious, resolute, and scholarly beyond even the high school principal. The normal schools are making the teachers, who in their turn are making the minds of the great masses of our boys and girls. In many respects, most men and women do not grow much beyond their powers and ideals of their last year at school, which was in most cases a grammar grade.

Vacation summer schools and playgrounds offer peculiar problems that require fuller treatment than is warranted in these pages by the present or the probable future number of such schools in small communities. It is to be noted, however, that the principals of such schools are usually the principals of regular grammar schools, or at least experienced teachers from the regular schools. The purposes of vacation schools are admirable, —

I. To provide occupation and care for the great number of children who cannot go away into the country for the summer.

II. To give as many months of "schooling" in the years of childhood as possible to those children who must leave school for work at the limit of compulsory attendance, usually fifteen years of age.¹

III. On the negative side, to keep children "off the streets" where, unguided by adults, they are likely to degenerate sadly during the "long vacation."

The summer vacation school for children or adults is a protest against the recent idea that school ought not to "keep" during hot weather.²

The principalship of the evening school is a difficult and an important enterprise. Its importance consists in its meeting several needs.

I. It meets the needs, or ought to, of all persons who,

¹ See Chapter XIII, "The Educational Policy of the Community."

² See Chapter XII, "The New Education."

having left school early and having seen in real life the demand for skillful labor or service, desire to secure an education by evening instruction and study. These persons deserve to be well provided for by their community. In most evening schools nine out of ten, and in many all, of the students are daily wage-earners.

II. It meets the needs of society, which is almost always oversupplied with unskilled and inefficient laborers and servants, and is always undersupplied with skilled and efficient laborers and servants.

III. It meets the needs of the exceptional young man who, without opportunity, cannot rise to the full measure of his ambition and ability; but who, with opportunity, may become an artist, an engineer, an executive manager, a journalist, or indeed whatever his talents and opportunities together permit.

The great difficulties of the evening schools are these, namely: —

I. To secure sufficient funds to offer a variety of courses. Often in evening schools, it is educationally worth while to teach one student.

To illustrate: In a certain small city, the evening school course in mechanical drawing had two students. By reason of their instruction, in their daily employment one rose from \$8 to \$15 a week at once, and the other from \$6 to \$10. In a year, this meant an increase in earning power for both together of over \$500. The instruction for one hundred and twenty-eight evenings cost the community \$256. The next year twelve, and the following year twenty-three, students took the course. In the meanwhile, a large manufacturing concern moved its works to the city and in a public statement gave as one of its three reasons for so doing, the excellent supply of skilled draughtsmen in the local labor market. Then the board of education raised the instructor's salary to \$4 per evening.

The principal of an evening school must protect the

interests of all the students, especially those of the brightest and most industrious. There are now too many persons of similar preparation for life. We must force up every available boy and man, girl and woman, lest we have a great surplus of laborers on the market who will force the general mass of laborers down. We can get rid of excessive competition for work only by educating as many as possible for new, higher, and more efficient kinds of work. Everything that we can do to make some boys different from other boys, and more intelligent than average boys, helps not only the fortunate boy who is well educated, but also all boys who are less well educated, since it removes one more rival for inferior general work, and develops the superior special worker, whose work itself, being outside the sphere of competition, necessarily benefits others, including the less fortunate.

II. To hold in attendance the greater number of those who register and come for a few evenings and then "drop out." An evening school is a constant exemplification of the parable of the sower.¹

The means to hold those whose interest is weak or whose physical strength is small, are various :—

1. Sending out postal cards or letters whenever a student is absent for two sessions. These should be written by the class teacher. They show the school's interest in the absentee's welfare.

2. Offering a variety of courses so as to reach a variety of interests and needs.

It is usually hard to persuade a board of education to open an evening high school. The courses to be offered must vary with locality. The following are usually valuable in the smaller cities, namely :—

Algebra, geometry, trigonometry.

Freehand and mechanical drawing.

German, — language and literature.

English, — grammar, composition, rhetoric, literature.

¹ Matthew, chapter xiii, verses 3 to 23.

History, — American, English, modern, general.

Shorthand and typewriting.

Commercial law.

Commercial arithmetic and bookkeeping.

In the larger cities, a far greater variety of courses is required.

3. Encouraging the social life by Saturday evening "sociables" and entertainments (with or without lectures) in the school buildings. Prominent citizens may be invited to give addresses. This encourages the plodding students and interests prominent people in the school.

III. To find suitable books for use in the elementary classes. The presence of well-grown youth and of adults in the illiterate classes and in the English classes for foreigners, as well as in the classes in arithmetic, has revealed a defect in the text-book list that only recently has been even partially remedied. The contents of children's readers and arithmetics are by no means suited to interest adults. This has necessitated finding teachers with time to spare for the preparation of lessons, thus further complicating the evening school situation, in which the small appropriations have made it difficult to secure any teachers.

IV. To find men and women of sufficient physical strength to do successful work in both day and evening schools, or else to get sufficient funds to pay men and women to do nothing else than evening school work.

By having two teachers for a day class, one for morning and the other for afternoon, it is possible to provide teachers for evening school who shall not be too weary for the work. This does not, however, solve the problem of securing a competent principal.

The principalship of the reform or parental school opens up the great field of sociology even more widely than does that of the ordinary school. The purpose of such a school is to save the morally bad. As long as it costs one thousand dollars a year to keep a criminal in a

penitentiary or a reformatory, no amount is too great that a State or a city can be persuaded to spend upon reform or parental schools to keep boys from growing up to be criminals.

The principal of a reform school must be a student of causes as well as of methods, — able to diagnose mental and moral conditions. There is no school wherein he may be trained. The development of a competent principal in the course of ordinary educational training is unusual; his discovery by a board of trustees is apt to be an accident.¹

The manual training or mechanics arts or industrial school is distinctly a special development. By some, it is gravely urged that two courses of education from the very beginning of school life should be open to the children, namely: —

Literary Course:

Chiefly English language, history, music, geography, ancient and modern languages.

To produce merchants, scholars, etc.

Industrial Course:

Chiefly mathematics, Nature study, physical training, sciences.

To produce mechanics, farmers, etc.

Whether the adoption of a dual system of schools would or would not be practical, its unfortunate tendency to divide American society into two classes is obvious. Nevertheless, upon a sufficiently broad foundation the manual training school is desirable.² The principalship of such a school involves a practical knowledge of the world's and the community's industrial affairs that is very rare in school men. Without such a knowledge, the work of the

¹ Several investigations are now going forward as to reform and parental schools. Among these is that which is being conducted by the New Jersey State Council of Education. The only reason why there are not now many more such schools is because it was the hopeful confidence of early American free common school enthusiasts that no such schools would be needed. The subject is practically new in the field of education.

² See Chapter XII, "The New Education."

school is apt to be theoretical and misapplied. But the man who has that knowledge is usually not an educator.

The future of American education promises a great and rapid multiplication of industrial schools, a multiplication limited only by the supply of men competent to establish and conduct them.

The primary school, with its four or five years of instruction, is the most narrowly restricted of all city schools. The principal of such a school almost always is, and usually should be, a woman. The presence of a primary school in a community is sometimes a striking demonstration of the partial failure of American education to reach all who ought to be educated, for it shows that most children go to school only until their work begins to be economically valuable. Even girls are being withdrawn from school at fourteen or fifteen years of age (indeed, earlier where compulsory education laws are evaded) in order to help at home or to work in mill, factory, shop, or store.

The successful management of a primary school requires a strong maternal instinct and interest. To principals without love for little children,¹ the routine of the position soon grows irksome. Important as personality is in all school principalships, it is nowhere more important than in the principalship of the primary school.

The power of a strong principal in such a school is over-

¹ Many people undoubtedly think that school is only for little children. Illustrations from secret society "esoteric work" and from the "common talk" abundantly prove this. "He (or she) is too big to go to school," is the remark that precedes the removal of most boys and girls from school. The historical origin of this is interesting. It is partly the economic tradition. As soon as any young animal is big enough to take care of itself, send it out into the world: such is the tradition. Fiske's "prolonged infancy" theory is scientifically true, though most men limit the infancy of their offspring too narrowly. The greater beasts of prey keep their cubs with them until nearly full grown. Many a father expects his son or daughter to be self-supporting when not half grown. Such a man has not yet grown to the intellectual and moral stature of the American. See Chapter XII, "The New Education."

whelming. Little children are natural hero worshipers. And mothers and fathers quickly adopt their children's attitude toward principal, teachers, and schools.

To illustrate: A new and strong principal in such a city school within a few weeks broke up child beating in an entire neighborhood, reformed the mode of dressing children, and made her school a center of radiant light, at once reflected in better home life and in a surprising interest in school affairs.

There remains to be noted, in the public school system of the State, the public normal schools. The importance of such schools is certain to increase rather than to diminish in the coming quarter-century. The normal school holds a position between high school graduation and entrance upon class room teaching. In character, it is in some respects a college and in others a professional training school, for it gives both academic instruction and pedagogical training. The normal school is in the early stages of its development, for its two or three years' course is inadequate for the proper preparation of teachers, and the tendency is to recognize this fact by lengthening the duration of the teacher's apprenticeship.

The principalship of a normal school is in one respect like a city superintendency, for the principal is directly responsible to a board of control. In many respects, a State normal school principalship resembles a State university chancellorship rather than an endowed university presidency.

The principalship of a State normal school is the most independent of all public school positions even in the States with State universities, because of the principal's large control of the expenditure of money. Its responsibilities are heavier in amount, though less varied, than even those of city superintendencies. A State normal

school principal is responsible to every village, town, and city for the quality of the graduates of his school; that, at least, is the presumption. It is, therefore, by no means uncommon for the principal of a normal school to have almost absolute control of the appointment and discharge of teachers and the installation of courses of study. Fortunately for the principal, his board of control is apt to recognize the fact that such matters are professional.

Such is the importance of normal schools that it warrants the setting forth of certain principles for their administration toward whose realization all ought to move as rapidly as possible.

1. A requirement that all public and private teachers must be normal school or college graduates.

2. A requirement that all entering students must be graduates of standard high schools or the equivalent. This may be defined as holding diplomas representing at least the following attainments: Four years of English rhetoric, literature, composition; four years of German, or Latin, or French, or Greek, taken singly or combined; two years of science; two years of history, English, Greek, Roman, or general, in any combination; two years of algebra and geometry; with four years of art, music, physical training, manual training, domestic science, in suitable combinations; and with other equivalent studies, the total being twenty hours of recitation, forty weeks in the year, for four years, that is, some thirty-two hundred recitation periods, including reviews, tests, and examinations.

3. Provision for at least four hundred hours of practice as a teacher, with or without a critic; that is, two hours daily for two hundred days, or the equivalent.

Normal schools have no right to certify teachers as

competent until the habit of good teaching in varied conditions is established. All normal schools must have good practice schools, not too small.

4. Thorough and extensive academic and professional work for four years. This may seem a long course. But it is only as long as the present standard college course, which is none too long when it is a finishing course.

5. The appointment to the faculty of the normal school of only such educators as are amply prepared for the work, their payment upon that basis, and their assignment to not over twelve or fourteen hours of instruction per week. Such a faculty will not be likely to send out graduates who imagine themselves fitted to teach thenceforth through life without further study.

6. Provision whereby at the end of the first year in the normal school the State will take such students as appear likely to make good teachers and will support them. A nation that can afford millions on millions for West Point and Annapolis to prepare the leaders in war sets a good example to the States.¹ They may all well afford to prepare and maintain the exemplars of peace.

As a fair allowance for the support of normal apprentices, four hundred dollars annually for the second, third, and fourth years is suggested.²

¹ We have no minister (or secretary) of education in our National Cabinet; but we have two ministers of War, viz., War and Navy. We pay our United States Commissioner of Education \$3500; our two war secretaries \$12,000 each. Why not save \$3500 by having one war minister and one peace (education) minister?

² Six hundred dollars should be the minimum salary by law, payable in any State annually to any teacher. In many States, the minimum should be higher. Such a minimum would tend to remove all temptation to employ cheap incompetents. In expectation of the allowance suggested, even the poorest boys and girls could get enough funds for the first year by borrowing and paying back the loan from savings during the course. The minimum must be prescribed as an annual amount, not as a monthly. The history of these laws as to minimum salaries in several States that have tried the plan deserves close consideration.

CHAPTER VII

THE SUPERVISORSHIP

SUPERVISORSHIPS have been established in many comparatively small towns, and in nearly all cities, for four distinctly different reasons.

I. Because supervision has been recognized as an extremely valuable help in the establishment of good schools.¹ This is a general reason.

II. Because at the time of the installation of new subjects in the course of study, it has often been found that many old teachers were unfamiliar with them. In these cases, the supervisors have been employed as specialists, either to teach the children, directly, or to teach the class teachers how to teach the children. All the subjects of the so-called "new education" have been introduced only by means of experts in them; that is, artists, musicians, woodworkers, physical trainers, etc.² In actual practice in all communities, the supervisors or assistant supervisors teach both the children and the teachers, often at the same time, by means of illustrative lessons. Supervision involves illustration as well as criticism by blame and praise.

III. Because, in actual fact, the superintendent is often unable to give that detailed supervision which the schools actually need. His administrative duties grow with the growth of the community; as they grow, the time available for supervision decreases.

¹ For a discussion of the principles of supervision, see Chapter IV, "Supervision."

² See Chapter XII, "The New Education."

IV. Because, in a considerable school system, there can be no uniformity without comparison of schools. This can be made constantly only when the supervisory force is adequate.

V. Because the average grade of work in certain lines has fallen so low as to require special attention.

In consequence, various supervisorships have been added, all of them being in the nature of outgrowths of the superintendency, — its branches, as it were. All supervisorships represent the central office, and all supervisors are the direct agents of the superintendent. The fact that many supervisors know more than he knows about their subject does not in the least affect the relationship.

Reason I has supported the creation of every kind of supervisorship.

Reason II has led to the creation of supervisorships in art, manual training, music, physical training, kindergarten, domestic science and art, Nature study, reading by phonic methods, German, French, Spanish, medical inspection of health.

Reason III has led to the creation of associate and assistant supervisorships.

Reason IV has led to the creation of grammar grade, primary grade, and kindergarten supervisorships, and to various forms of inspectorship.

Reason V has led to the creation of supervisorships in any and all of the standard school studies and exercises, penmanship and reading supervisorships being common.

Many supervisorships indicate, not that most of the teachers do their work poorly, but that the educational standard of the community is high, and that the course of study is broad. The superintendent who advocates supervisorships does not create the impression that he himself is inexperienced and idle, but that he means to have good schools, and feels confident of his ability to manage specialists. Since most boards of education contain members who are willing to magnify the importance of their office, it is

seldom as difficult to secure the new supervisorships as it is to raise the salaries and the general quality of old supervisorships. The drift in American education to-day is fast becoming a current that bears many supervisorships into the school systems. For the protection of the school children, educators in office must see that adequate standards and salaries are provided and adequate qualifications are demanded to secure good supervisors.

The duties of the supervisor are these, namely :—

1. To represent worthily the department in which he serves, and fairly the policy of the superintendent whom he represents. For a principal to oppose the policy of the school superintendent is unfortunate for both; it is disloyalty to the best interests of the schools unless the opposition is open warfare, public and continuous, and designed to secure the removal of the superintendent. But for a supervisor to oppose the policy of the superintendent is a kind of school treason, and is essentially unforgivable. This is equally true whether the treason is secret or open, and whether the supervisor was appointed before or after the superintendent.

This principle ought to be recognized by all teachers, and ought to be enforced by all boards of education.

2. To hold regular meetings for the instruction of the teachers; to furnish them with outlines and programs; to counsel with them.

3. To exemplify his own art; to understand its inherent method; and to be able to correlate it with other school subjects.

4. To organize exhibits (or entertainments) by which the school children's proficiency in the supervised department may be shown to all persons interested.

5. To supervise the work of all teachers who give any

instruction in his art and to report thereon to the superintendent.

6. To give in the classes lessons in the art for the instruction of the children or of the class teacher or of both.

7. To grow in knowledge and in skill; that is, in both general and technical knowledge, and in skill both as an artist and as a teacher of the art.

The supervisory positions are the weak spots in most school systems, large and small, being relatively poorer in quality of the persons occupying them than are the positions of principal and teacher. The reasons are two:—

I. The supervisorships are a recent development, not yet well understood so as to be supported by public sentiment.

II. They are hard to fill at the salaries these new positions are considered worth by our boards of education.

To illustrate a typical relation of salaries:¹—

Superintendent	\$3000
High school principal	\$2000
Elementary principals	\$800 to \$1200 ²
Supervisors	\$600 to \$1000 ³
High school teachers	\$600 to \$1400
Elementary teachers	\$450 to \$675

This would be a more reasonable relation of salaries, namely:—

Superintendent	\$3000
High school principal	\$2500
Elementary principals	\$1000 to \$2000
Supervisors	\$1200 to \$2000
High school teachers	\$800 to \$1400
Elementary teachers	\$450 to \$1000

¹ These are the actual figures of a certain small city in the East, 1907-1908.

² Paid to general primary supervisor.

³ Paid to principal of a school of eight hundred children.

This latter arrangement undoubtedly involves spending more money. But it accords¹ with certain fundamental and essential relations. It gives the supervisors higher salaries than any persons receive who are to be supervised. To send a \$1000 elementary school supervisor to supervise the school of a \$1200 principal, is to establish only bitterness. To send a \$600 special supervisor to help a \$675 teacher is equally unnecessary, for it can avail nothing good.

Without going into salary details, proper rank in salaries may be indicated as follows, namely :—

Superintendent.

Associate superintendent, if any.

Assistant superintendent, if any.

High school principal.

Grammar and primary supervisors, if any.

Principals of elementary schools.¹

Supervisors of special subjects.²

High school teachers.³

Elementary school teachers and kindergartners.⁴

It is a fair question whether men or women make the better supervisors. That men make the better administrators I have already said.⁵ As a general proposition, women make the better supervisors. They are more interested in details. They do not make as good associate or assistant superintendents, however. From the general proposition certain exceptions may be taken.

In the art supervisorships, women generally do better than men, but not always in large school systems, because of their physical inferiority and of their lack of administrative power.

¹ See Chapter XVI, "Salary, Tenure, and Certificate," for a still more just apportionment of money for these purposes.

² Undoubtedly length in office and size of school ought to be considered in the matter of elementary school principalships in the smaller cities.

³ What subjects ought to receive the highest salaries is discussed later. See page 212.

⁴ Advanced grammar grade teachers should receive especial consideration in the matter of salary.

⁵ See Chapter VI, "The Principalship,"

In music, men often do better, especially in the higher grades. Their voices seem to attract the children more, and give a variety to the singing of the teachers. But at the same salary in a small system, women are preferable.

These generalizations, however, are subject to so many exceptions that every skilful school superintendent and every common sense board of education should consider personality rather than sex, in all selections for such positions.

Women generally have greater difficulty in persuading boys over thirteen years of age to sing than men have, while girls of any age are easily led to sing by either men or women. Consequently, in a high school, a man teacher of singing is preferable.

In manual training, obviously, the work for boys should be conducted by men, and that for girls by women. Similarly, domestic science and art must be conducted by women.

Physical training: here it is best to have a man for the boys of the high and advanced grammar schools, and a woman for all other pupils.

The primary grade supervisors, and special supervisors in Nature study, reading, kindergarten, should be women, because they deal more successfully with the smaller children.

The medical inspection of schools should be conducted by men and women physicians. This inspection is now altogether too infrequent or too perfunctory. A separation of the sexes for this purpose is essential.

The supervisors of modern language instruction, when given in the elementary schools, may be also high school teachers. Sex is a matter of indifference, except so far as salary is concerned.¹

¹ It is a hard fact, from which we cannot escape, that in this decade of the twentieth century men command salaries from twenty-five to a hundred per cent greater than women of

Of these various supervisorships the salaries are likely to vary somewhat, for the following reasons, namely : —

I. The difference in the length and in the expense of the technical preparation. An art education takes many years, and is relatively expensive.

II. The difference in the experience of the supervisors. Almost inevitably some supervisors will be many years older than others.

III. The difference in the number of teachers to be supervised. Art covers all grades ; domestic art and science, but few grades.

IV. The difference in the difficulty of acquiring the knowledge and the skill requisite for success. This is a matter of native talent and of supply and demand on the market.

V. The difference in the supervisor's opportunity to earn money outside of his regular school duties ; that is, some supervisorships require more before-and-after school work than do others.

Fortunate is the city that can avoid all this discussion by paying a uniform high salary, regardless of the market for supervisors' services. Then, to avoid all jealousies, the superintendent must see that all supervisors do about the same amount of work, daily, weekly, and yearly.

To illustrate : To the physical training teachers, whose lessons begin later in the school season and end considerably before the time of the high school commencement, the superintendent may assign a light calisthenics exhibition ; or if his city system has a gymnasium, a complete gymnastic exhibit. By some ingenuity and forethought, these matters can be fairly adjusted.

Three comparatively new supervisorships (or inspectorships) remain to be considered ; that of the physician, that of the sociologist, and that of the psychologist.

The medical inspection of schools has now advanced to the point of eye and ear tests, and to the effort to eliminate incipient contagious diseases. In connection with the physical training work, there may be given simple tests of strength, lung capacity, and other similar matters. But these are by no means enough.

equal competence. From this it is not to be concluded, as democracy has erroneously concluded, that there can be a good grammar or high school without men teachers. This is impossible ; such an effeminate affair is unsymmetrical. It is a hotbed of feminine whims and tyrannies.

As a nation, we have gone knowledge-mad in our schools. We think it none too much to keep a daily record of a child's mental condition and to send home a monthly report of his progress in so-called scholarship. For his physical condition and progress, for his health, which is the foundation and the substance of him, we care little, sometimes nothing. Once in a while, we wake up with a shock to the fact that he is physically defective or to the fact that he is morally debased, a condition that more often results from physical than from mental causes. Scientific medical inspection of the school building and of every pupil in it is a protest and is progress. Consider the following program and record, namely : —

I. Annual thorough examination of building, — especially its lighting, heating, ventilation, and sanitation, — by experts.

II. Semi-annual inspection of each individual.

1. Each eye, right and left.
2. Color blindness, each eye.
3. Balance of eyes.
4. Each ear, right and left.
5. Throat and nose, for adenoid growths, etc.
6. Lungs and chest.
7. Spinal system, for curvature, etc.
8. Strength.
9. Nervous force.
10. Health, especially digestion and sleep.

As to each an illustrative note.¹

1. In a certain high school, upon the beginning of such inspection, a girl was discovered, totally blind in one eye, and going blind in the other, who did not know it. Result: one eye saved and the other partly restored. At ten years of age, one child in three has defective eyesight or eyes.

2. In an elementary school, a boy who desired to become a designer

¹ The author of this book owes the use of his eyes entirely to the skilful care and surgery of certain oculists, in Europe and America, among whom he mentions with gratitude Dr. William R. Broughton, of New York and Bloomfield. A competent school physician in early life might have saved him many years of trouble.

was discovered color-blind in one eye as to red, and in the other as to every color. He was taught color for two years and was finally able to see all primary colors with both eyes.

3. Deafness is seldom painful, but as it is often a progressive disease, the sooner its presence is known the better. It is a dangerous disease in the modern world of steam and electric cars, of machinery, and of all manner of automobiles.

4. In a certain town, a boy of fourteen was afraid to go up and down stairs, could not eat, would not study, looked fairly well. A teacher, who knew something about physiology, sent him to a throat and nose specialist, who removed seven adenoid growths from the throat and nose. Three months later, the boy was the delight of his parents for physical energy and of his teacher for his mental power.

5. Consumption is frequently discovered.

6. One in four of high school girls seems to have spinal curvature well begun, sometimes well developed.

7. An examination for strength is important before boys are allowed to play on school football teams. Every high school ought to have a gymnasium to remedy weak muscles.

8. In a certain school, the mother of a girl who was remade by a year's gymnasium work, — she was an intelligent but a poor woman, — hearing that the politicians proposed "to close the gymnasium," offered fifty dollars from her savings bank account toward its maintenance. This is the eloquence of fact.

9. By nervous force is meant speed and persistence and regularity. This is an almost perfect test of health.

10. To stop the drinking of strong coffee at breakfast and the sleeping with closed windows with two children in a bed are two features of the program of the school's warfare against ignorance, disease, and poverty, man's trinity of miseries.

The above are at best mere illustrations and suggestions. The importance of the subject in the sphere of school administration is by no means indicated by the small space given to it here. The real trouble is that horses, houses, and shoes cost money; boys and girls do not. Moreover, it has not yet been sufficiently "hammered" into the consciousness and the conscience of men that "we are all members one of another."¹

¹ A certain man of property gave his only daughter a most elaborate education. A neighbor's son desired to go to college, and applied for assistance by the influence of the rich man

This line of argument serves for the two other supervisoryships. The sociologist is needed in every considerable school system to advise regarding courses of study, location of schools, plans for school buildings, parents' associations, neighborhood clubs, evening lectures, boys' athletics and games, mothers' clubs, whatever concerns society.¹ His business is to know and to understand all localities. He is needed because the school is becoming the new integrating social center.

Similarly, the psychologist is needed to pass judgment upon all individuals with any peculiarity of note. He is to prevent wrecks. Let him study pedagogical methods, nascent interests, mental traits of all kinds. Let him diagnose and prescribe. Such a man can do more good than a big library of books, because he is a library of knowledge ready for use.

The sociologist and the psychologist may often assist and supplement each other. They should be of opposite sexes so as to see things from opposite points of view. It makes

and by loan of money. He got neither. However, he went to college, working his own way. After graduation the girl and the youth fell in love. To break the match the rich man took his daughter to Europe. The youth, overworked, died of hasty consumption. Four months later the girl died of "nervous prostration" and a "broken heart." This was in New England.

In a city in the Middle West, upon the prominent street, an only son, and heir to a fortune. In the back alley, a family of the poor, with scarlet fever, neglected until far advanced. The poor children went to a hospital and lived. The rich boy took the disease and died.

Verily, when one member suffers, all the members suffer with it.

In a great American family, so rich, so strong from generation to generation, as to amount to a dynasty, a son married the beautiful but ignorant daughter of several generations of the poor. The care of her station and its strange surprises sent her to an asylum at forty, a helpless lunatic. Her three sons are there to-day.

"They are not my children," the man of culture, or of blood, or of station, or of power, or of wealth, may say. Very true. But they may be the wives or the husbands of your children, or the grandfathers or grandmothers of your grandchildren.

Eternal vigilance is the price of liberty; infinite solicitude for others is the price of safety.

¹ He is needed whether he be called by that name or not. If it is easier to secure him under the term of assistant superintendent or director of vacation schools, let him be secured by that title.

little difference whether the man or the woman be either the one or the other.¹ If he or she cannot be secured under this title, let him or her be known as primary supervisor or assistant superintendent. The important thing, in any case, with regard to the sociologist or the psychologist is to have educators of thoroughly equipped mind, especially trained in these directions, to be employed in school systems to give daily advice. One or both of such officers may well be secured in those small school systems where there may be no supervising principals in the elementary schools, but where a primary supervisor, or both primary and grammar supervisors, may be employed in addition to the general superintendent.

All supervisors, general or special, should spend most of their time upon the teachers who most need it. The class teacher who teaches music well may be exempted from any but infrequent and short calls.

In a small school system, with four or five schools, where the high school is but a department in one of the schools, the question may arise, when progress is proposed, as to whether it is best to place supervising principals in each school at a total cost of four or five thousand dollars, or a man superintendent and a woman primary supervisor over all the schools at the same cost. By the former plan, one two thousand dollar teacher (the high school principal) and four eight hundred dollar teachers may be added to the schools; by the latter, one thirty-five hundred dollar teacher and another at eighteen hundred dollars. Quality tells far more than quantity; and in all ordinary conditions, the latter plan will produce better results than the former.

¹ Progress is now being made in several school systems by the employment of a clinical psychologist and of a vocational adviser. The psychologist works in the field of differential diagnosis of individuals. The vocational adviser both assists in arranging courses and in helping graduates or others leaving school to secure employment that will lead into lifelong usefulness. County systems as well as city systems need these helpers. They are as important as the medical inspectors and the school nurses,

CHAPTER VIII

THE GRADED PUBLIC SCHOOL

LET no narrow definition of the school content us. The gospel of salvation by education is exemplified there; that gospel is not a formula, but a fact.

The progress of society is secured only when the adults teach the youth all their knowledge and teach this knowledge to more of the new generation than the number of those who knew it in the old, and when the people of the new generation increase this knowledge. Culture thus becomes the heritage of increasing numbers of people; and culture increases mainly by the instrumentality of the school. The young redeem and renew the old.

One of the strongest passions in human nature is to make the world for those who come after us better than we found it ourselves. Upon that passion is established the school; as upon the strongest passion, love, is established the home. By no possibility can either be rooted out of humanity; they are the causes of our continuance and of our progress. All history is a march toward the goal of perfect homes and perfect schools. Therein is the longed-for happiness of the soul and of the mind. This is the interpretation of land hunger, migrations, and wars, and of all wealth-seeking industry and commerce.

In the heart of the school there are two persons whose minds meet, the teacher and the learner, the one who knows and the one who desires to know. Let us not be deceived by the modern heresy. The school is too vast,

too various, too strong, too ancient, too outreaching, to be embraced in meaning by a sketch of a young woman teaching a child. In that relationship often is the true school, but we American moderns are sorely wrong in dreaming that this is the school universal. The ancients were wiser, who saw the philosopher walking with his disciples in the groves of Academe, and recognized the fact that those men were at school; who saw Moses among the acolytes in the temples of Iris and Osiris and Memnon, listening to the secret wisdom of the priests, and knew that the full-grown man was at school.

So eager has the race been for wealth to adorn the home that a certain public shame has attached to him who, a bearded man, still follows the pursuit of knowledge in the school. Yet in all the great civilizations that endured as many millenniums as we have lasted centuries, the school, like the home, was an institution for life. Nor can we Americans last unless the world-old principle revives among us, as indeed there are now signs of its stirring. What else is the meaning of educational lecture courses, of post graduate studies, of institutions of research, of schoolhouses open seven days in the week and all day long as social centers?

Wherever men, young and old, resort day by day that they may get understanding from wiser men, there is the universal school. In not remembering this truth, we have cheapened civilization. We have mistaken the youth's entrance upon his occupation for a livelihood as the equivalent of matriculation in a university for a life. Some of us have considered manhood suffrage a substitute for the degree of master of arts.

It is no marvel that American democracy, aiming at universal liberty and adopting the system of free common

education as the sole means of securing and maintaining liberty, failed to understand the wide meaning of education by schooling. Through all centuries hitherto, the school has been the privilege of the select. The masses have taken "clerk" to mean one who can read and write; that is, perform the mechanical processes of getting and giving information by the eye and hand. The content of the information has been a hidden treasure. The masses achieved a measure of democracy upon this soil because of free land, and long before they knew what democracy is. Even this measure of achievement is scarcely two generations old in our country. Only about the middle of the nineteenth century did human life as such become precious in the eyes of men. Until human life did become dear to humanity, the free common school could not exist either for children or for adults. In the course of parental love and from the obviousness of the arts of reading, writing, and computing, the children were first gathered into the free common school to learn these arts. Moreover, thus to gather the children was a real convenience to the parents, since it gave them more time for the economic life, with its industrial and domestic labors.

This was truly a strange spectacle in world history for, until the middle decades of the nineteenth century in the United States, no nation had ever undertaken the universal education of its little children.¹ On the contrary, the great universities and "grammar" schools had absorbed all educational interests; and the universities were little more than philosophical conferences, and the grammar schools were much like our high schools and colleges. The history of our race culture cannot be understood except in the light of the fact that, until the rise of American

¹ New England has pursued this course for two hundred years

democracy upon the plateaus of the Alleghanies, education was the privilege of a few adolescent male youth. By education, I mean the uplift of the spirit out of the flesh; not mere disciplining of the flesh in a "dame-school" here and there.

In the soul of the common people stirred a purpose to make their children "literate." They themselves could not make them so. But American democracy had quickened, not only the working people, but the scholars. As the free were to win freedom for the slave by battle on many a death-smitten field, so the wise were to win wisdom for the ignorant by conflict in many a hard-fought and fatal arena of debate and legislation. For the slave could not win freedom for himself; his superstitions created fear, and fear unnerved his hands. Nor could the ignorant win knowledge for himself; his traditions created blindness, and blindness misled his steps. Unfortunately for the cause of universal enlightenment, democracy seemed to the ignorant to be in conflict with scholarship, for democracy affirms equality, fraternity, liberty, while scholarship acknowledges inequality, mastery, obedience. Is not the teacher the superior of the taught? They cannot be equal. A free man cannot go to school to a teacher! They cannot be brothers. Is not the learner subject to the teacher, for surely one cannot learn who disputes authority? They cannot be equally free. Such was and such is yet the general misunderstanding of democracy. And it helps to explain the common reluctance of adult American citizens, especially the ballot-casting men, to enroll themselves in evening schools, and to be known among their fellow-men as confessing ignorance.

In truth, democracy as a universal rebellion against tyranny, is a rebellion against the tyranny of scholarship

and of scholars. But modern scholarship is not tyrannical, for it is scientific.¹ This modern scholarship is not dogmatic, and has no spirit of authority; indeed, protests very democratically against authority and desires to find the facts; is humble, eager for truth, whole-hearted, respectful, equal, never obedient to men. The old democracy, with its rebellion against the tyranny of priests and of lords, is dying out, for its warfare is accomplished. A new democracy is rising, that knows nothing about equality, fraternity, and freedom, and their quarrel with tyranny. This new and higher democracy has set its faith upon opportunity and in preparation for opportunity. This faith means the best possible education for every one; for each one's own sake, for the nation's sake. Creating the universal school, the new and enlightened democracy will make boys into business men and men into yet better business men; but even more will it make boys into citizens and men into yet better citizens; it will help girls to become wise for motherhood and home making, and women to become wise for the rearing of children and for the betterment of humanity.

Unless it be true that few persons over fourteen can acquire new ideas and develop new purposes, the universal school must necessarily be made so rich in the new scholarship and in the abundance of inspiring opportunities that men and women as well as children will delight in its marvelous opportunities. The justification of the establishment of the universal school at any cost may be found in several arguments.

1. Its costs are necessary, lest in a democracy the

¹ In a sense in which scholarship may be taken as a type of human activity throughout universal history, the term describes without defining what is sometimes defined disagreeably as priestcraft.

citizens be unfit for their duties, privileges, and responsibilities. The vicious and the pauper imperil every community.¹ In this view, education is in the nature of police protection. With sufficient good schools, there would be no criminals.

2. Society needs the enrichment that will follow the thorough and extended education of all individuals. Many of the mediocre are now lost to culture and to the higher civilization because of the absence of opportunities in evening classes for self-improvement.

The old ideal of a man's good fortune because he possessed advantages and privileges in the presence of the poverty of all others is now utterly discredited by the discerning. The new ideal is that a man's happiness consists in belonging to a society of the uniformly happy, with no gloomy background of the poor, the ignorant, the oppressed, and the wretched. A society is great and noble when there are none mean and ignoble within its life. In such a view of education, the costs are really but investments for the future. Every dollar spent on the child or man comes back with compound interest.

3. The nation needs all kinds of well-developed individuals to make and to seize all kinds of opportunities. Civilization is a stupendous complex of facts and forces; the greater their complication, the higher the civilization. This variety of life, produced by education everywhere, continued into adult life, lends an ideal charm to this dream of civilization made universal. In this view, every nation is to become a perfect society.

4. There is little need to justify the attempts to secure

¹ We lost one President, the beloved McKinley, for want of really universal education, for the assassin knew nothing of our great national life, and had received no systematic schooling in free day schools.

the universal school, for it is indeed certain to come. The true joy of a home is in its children and youth, but not in the expectation that they will grow up to become some day men and women like ourselves. We recognize in our children infinite possibilities. Because of this belief that "of such is the kingdom of heaven," parents and relatives love to spend time and money upon children. We see in them the effects of the opportunities, treasures, and services that time and money secure; and our hearts glow with pleasure. In modern Christian civilization, the real cause of the efforts to maintain good schools is affection for children and youth.

So in this democratic nation, whose children all of us are, Freedom, brooding as it were over the sons and daughters of men in America, delights in us and cherishes us for a destiny beyond our dreaming. Freedom is the form that the providence of God has taken for us. The only limits of freedom are knowledge and training. The learned and the trained are the free.

When it is remembered that no nation hitherto has cherished its plainer people, let it be also remembered that there never was a nation like ours hitherto, a self-conscious nation whose government was "of the people, by the people, and for the people." All other nations have been of the vertical plane,¹ class upon class. We are inevitably working together for the general good.

A few isolated exceptions but make the fact clearer. The spirit of the nation is the spirit of humanity, and the spirit of humanity is brotherly love.² A democratic nation,

¹ See Chapter IV, "Supervision," page 108.

² I regret that the severe limitations of my space prevent the development of this point. But see Drummond, "The Ascent of Man"; Patten, "Heredity and Social Progress"; Kidd, "Principles of Western Civilization"; Giddings, "Principles of Sociology"; and indeed all modern books in sociology and kindred subjects.

like every good man, is moved by its heart. Many of the reasons that we give for extended free public education are mere excuses that justify us in doing what we really wish and intend to do, irrespective of reasons.¹

5. Again, there is no need to justify the costs of the universal school because this nation's head as well as its heart is at work building the school. Free universal education is but an expression of the regenerative influences of scholarship working in the minds and hearts of many men and women. This wonderful modern culture, as we see it exemplified in our best citizens, insists upon expression, output, and result. It knows that hoarding knowledge is as evil as hoarding money. This new philanthropic culture is energetic, expressive, and proselytizing.

The man of property is not always desirous that every other man shall have equal property. The man of health is not always desirous that every other man shall be equally healthy. But the man of modern scholarship desires all other men to possess equal scholarship, that life may be interesting to himself and to his fellows.

That in American life this philanthropic scholarship would long ere now have won all the people but for the hordes of the immigrating ignorant is probable. That despite the multitude of the ignorant, scholarship is making headway is significant. Indeed, the very presence of the many unlearned has quickened its spirit while burdening its back. Millions there yet are of the black, the brown, the yellow, and the white who know not yet the great doctrines of liberty in law, of opportunity through schooling, of equality by regarding as well as enforcing rights;

¹ Nations that do not love their children and their scholars are invariably unprogressive and typically undemocratic. The measure of progressiveness may be found in the love of school and home. Neglect of children and of scholars characterizes all static and degenerate populations.

but American scholarship, expressing itself in the school universal, is to win them all.

The building of the school universal began ages ago by the making and the collecting of its materials. But of all that which preceded the year 1850 I have little to say.

1. The first characteristic of the universal school began to manifest itself ages ago, when people came together for study. This was the college, the collecting together.

2. The second characteristic was its gathering and its dispensing of knowledge.

These are the essentials of the school; by definition, they make a school. For the school is a relationship between the one who knows fact and truth and the one who, desiring to learn fact and truth, repairs to the wise man for instruction. To the teacher, school is *σχολή*, leisure; to the learner, it is *studium*, effort. Whence we may learn that he who finds it hard to teach does not yet know; or the hardship is in externals, as having too many to teach, or being confined to narrow or base surroundings and materials.

3. The third characteristic of the school universal is its gradation of the learners. Gradation was the result of the discovery of a great principle, very slowly and very unwisely applied. Nor, in fact, do we yet know how to apply it correctly. We grade by proficiency in studies and in exercises. A result is that we have in the same class children of different ages and maturity of mind. We are as yet unable to provide in our elementary schools for those children who can do a little work well, but who fail when they undertake many things. The principle of gradation is sound, but needs further development.¹

¹ Gradation should not proceed to division. Separating all youth into two classes, the one to study books chiefly, the other to learn the manual arts, would tend to social caste and to all its intolerable evils.

4. The fourth characteristic of the school universal is that it is public. In America, this means that any persons may visit its sessions, that any parents may send their children to it free of cost, that it is owned by the public and maintained at public cost, and that its control is vested in a board directly or indirectly selected by the voting citizens and responsible to them. So prominent is this characteristic of the modern school that it is known as the public school. Yet this characteristic is no more distinctive historically than is any one of several others. Of the modern school as a public institution, it must be remembered that it is not really the publicity that the citizens have in mind, but the assumption of the cost by the public.

5. The fifth characteristic of the modern school is that the education it offers is free of expense to the scholars. This means that the building is provided at the cost of the community; that furniture, apparatus, books, and supplies are furnished, and that the teachers and janitors are paid from the proceeds of a general tax. Whether this freedom from expense by which intelligence is made as free as the air we breathe, is good, may be debated. It is undoubtedly true that a better argument can be made for free public land than for free public schools, but that argument, though interesting, and calculated to enforce the argument for free education, would be a digression herein.

6. The sixth characteristic of the modern school is that it is common. It is being extended everywhere. So common is it that we may almost call it universal. No child is shut away from its advantages. In an age when there are no bondsmen and no slaves, this general presence of the school is a natural result of democracy.

7. The seventh characteristic of the modern school is that its course has been extended through many years, so

that it has attractions to offer to all children and youth. In many States of the Union, the modern school begins with the kindergarten and ends with the post graduate work of the university.

8. The eighth characteristic of the modern school is that it is taught by experts. A profession of teaching has arisen to take control of the schools by right of superior service. This quality of expertness of teaching in the free public school is not so common as to be universal, but the schools characterized by it are increasing in number. In the schools taught by professional teachers and managed by professional educators, two great improvements are secured: the time of the child is saved because more rapid progress is made; and there are fewer children discouraged and driven out of school by want of proper assistance in their intellectual efforts. The professionalization of teaching and of administration is undoubtedly one of the most important matters at issue in modern American education.

9. The ninth characteristic of the modern school is that it is housed in a scientifically constructed building, and that its students are cared for with scientific skill. The modern schoolhouse of the advanced type is built by an architect in consultation with an educator, and both understand the proper construction of schoolhouses. Provision is made for the actual grade of students who attend. The high school is not like a primary school, and kindergartens and assembly halls are not neglected in the latter. There are systematic and adequate arrangements for unfailing ventilation, for perfect sanitation, for good lighting, and for ingress and egress. Individual wardrobes are supplied. The desks, if desks are used at all, are adjustable. There are class libraries, and there are comfortable reading rooms, play

rooms with gymnastic apparatus, a museum, and a garden for spring and summer.¹

10. The tenth characteristic of the modern school is its democratic spirit. It exists to open the doors of opportunity to any and to all. Its purpose is preparation for life and yet more life. "I came that ye might have life, and that ye might have it more abundantly," said the Master of us all. The modern school does not exist that it may impose burdens, but that it may strengthen for burden-bearing. This new spirit, new because forever young, transforms the school from a prison for drill, or from a hospital for cure, into a laboratory for the development of minds. The modern school, with its day classes, with its evening lectures, and with its variety of profitable instruction day and evening, has the power to serve young and old, serving even the best and wisest by affording them an opportunity to utilize their goodness and wisdom in service. Gladness in giving and in receiving is the secret of all happiness, for those who hate to give or to receive are the unhappiest of all mortals.

11. The eleventh characteristic of the fine modern school is that it utilizes the best qualities of both men and women as teachers. It is useless to discuss whether men or women make the most successful teachers: both are needed in every good school. One sex cannot educate both sexes. Women are more valuable than men for certain purposes, and men are more valuable than women for others: they are excellent critics and assistants of one another.

Such, in a brief sketch, are the foundation principles of American free common education and the main characteristics of the modern schools, "up to date," as the

¹ See my "Ideal School," a series of papers published in the *School Journal*, New York.

phrase is.¹ By means of these standards we may judge any school. In these times, which are decidedly better in the matter of education than any earlier times, every one and any one, whether professionally qualified or not, criticises any school as of right. Nor can we deny the right in this age of democracy, nor would we deny it, for with all its faults democracy is a distinct advance upon any earlier form and spirit of society. Schools, like all other institutions of the State, are subject to criticism. This criticism is given both by the expert and by the inexperienced; by the professional critic and by the general public.

How shall the professional educator judge a school? To answer this, I imagine a recently elected school superintendent visiting a school of his city for the first time. He may observe and investigate the school in an order and fashion indicated by the following questions:—

1. Location: Is the neighborhood thickly built up? Has the school-house a playground? Is it set far back from the noisy street? Has it air and light upon all sides? The answer tells the foresight of the board of education that bought the site.

2. Nature of the neighborhood: Are the houses single or in blocks? Of frame, brick, or stone? The answer gives the clew to the economic conditions of the parents.

3. Size of the building: How many stories in height is it? How many class rooms does it contain? How many other rooms?

4. Material and time when built? An old and substantial building in good repair speaks well for a community, where a new and poor one speaks badly for it.

5. Interior arrangements:—

a. Are the stairways numerous and safe?

b. Is there an assembly hall?

¹ As the past lives in the present, so frequently there is in the present a fact that belongs essentially to the future. There are, here and there in the modern school, indications symptomatic of the universal school that is to be.

A school without an assembly hall is not a college of students, but a mere accumulation of classes.

c. Are there rooms for manual training? for gymnastics? for the teachers? for a general school library?

d. Are the rooms sufficiently large? Are they overcrowded? A class of thirty is reasonable, of forty is large, of fifty is too large, of sixty is sinful. Self-respecting, child-loving teachers of experience who can get other positions (and no other teachers are worthy to be called entirely professional) resign rather than try to teach over fifty children. Competent superintendents see that their boards provide a second teacher when a class runs beyond fifty students. Every child needs at least twenty square feet of floor space.

e. What are the provisions for blackboard? Is there enough blackboard? Is it of good quality and color?

f. Are there any cross lights? The lighting of a schoolroom ought to come either from the left side or from the left and rear. When it comes from the left and rear, one half of the wall either of left or rear should be without windows, so that the light comes in a block from a corner.

g. Are the desks and chairs adjustable? If they are not adjustable, are at least twenty per cent adjustable? Every child should have a desk fairly suited to his size.

h. Has the class room a bookcase or cabinet for library books? If so, what is the nature of the equipment?

i. Is there a principal's office? Is there a room for supplies and text-books? Is there a school library?

j. Are there rooms with wardrobes for the teachers? Every school-house ought to be considered a home for all its occupants for the day-time.

k. What is the provision for the children's outer clothes? Children's wardrobes should be separated by a brick wall from the class room. Every child should have a separate compartment for his clothes, and the wardrobe should be well ventilated and lighted.

l. What is the system for providing fresh air and for taking out foul air from the building? Every schoolroom should have its entire contents of air changed every five or six minutes. There are at least three good systems: first, that of a fan to draw in air and of a fan to draw it out; second, that of a fan to draw in air, and of a heated exhaust flue to draw it out; third, that of liberal inlets operated by

gravity, and of a fan to draw the air out. The gravity system alone is insufficient because it fails to operate in mild weather when fresh air is most needed.

m. Is the school a full grammar, elementary, primary, or high school? This should be observed at once,—it will indeed probably be known before the visitor goes to the school. This factor of the use of schools is important to laymen as well as to professional men, because it tells whether or not there should be male teachers. Every grammar school ought to have several male teachers, and in every coeducational high school at least half of the teachers ought to be men,—the men (not merely young men, scarcely more than boys) in the higher grades, and the women (not all very young) in all grades. A complete grammar or high school taught only by women indicates both parsimony and incompetence in the conduct of the schools of a community.

n. Are the teachers of a good variety in age? Every staff ought to have old, middle-aged, and young teachers, particularly the last. The young teachers of the present time are better prepared for teaching than were the teachers of an earlier generation.

o. What is the general style of the teachers? Are they healthy and cheerful? To judge by their appearance, do they seem fairly well paid? Are they dressed in good taste? Where the teachers of a school are buoyant, there it is safe to say the children are well taught.

p. Is the principal a man or woman? Has he (or she) had a really adequate preparation, that is, an educational preparation essentially broader than that of the teachers? Or is he simply a class teacher in a higher office?

q. Are the higher grades taught by the departmental plan? May the teachers reasonably be called specialists? Are they enthusiastic, both for the children and in their subjects?

r. The visitor is now ready to make specific inquiries into the educational condition of the school. In a good class room, he will give, if authorized to do so, oral tests of a reasonable nature in various subjects. It is extremely desirable to avoid asking questions that are purely general or purely detailed, since both classes of questions are unfair. It is also undesirable to ask questions of the class as a whole, since by this method only the bright are inclined to respond. A good device is to have the children number themselves, seriatim, then to question them by numbers at random, and to pursue a topic in a series of questions asked of individuals. In carrying out this test, it

is well to ask for samples of the daily written work of these pupils. It is desirable also to inspect the register of the daily attendance, since a high percentage of attendance indicates great interest in school going, and this in turn indicates a well-taught class.

s. After this inspection has been carried on with reasonable thoroughness in several classes, the inspecting visitor is ready for a talk with the principal, who, when a fair-minded person, will probably disclose the strength and weakness of the school. By an inspection carried on along these lines, and renewed two or three times within a month or two, the expert visitor will arrive at a fairly correct knowledge of the school. In all criticism of teachers and principals, it is well to carry the double standard of schools in mind; that is, the instruction and the discipline. It is well to remember that where the instruction is good the order is likely to be good, for the instruction is the cause of interest and attention, which are the basis of good order. On the other hand, at the beginning of the year, order is more important than the instruction, since, until there is sufficient order to permit the giving of instruction, there can be no systematic school work done. In a good school, there is neither oppression of the children by repression of their physical activity, nor is there any harassing of the teachers by noise and confusion.

The expert in judging classes does not need very much time. He may learn by a glance the ages, manner, and dress of the school children, desks, etc. He needs a little more time to judge the culture of the teachers, but that is told in large part by the voice and the carriage.

In such a fashion as that which is outlined, a rapid test may be made. A thorough test of the school is a much more important matter.

To make such a test the following plan may be carried out: The examiner may make a set of written test questions in all the main subjects. These may be given to the classes by teachers assigned to them from other classes. The papers of the children may all be marked by numbers or by fictitious names. The examination marks should be given by still a different teacher. All

oral subjects should be examined by visiting teachers or principals who do not know the children. By such a thorough test as this, one may arrive at competent knowledge, based upon facts impartially gathered, of the standing of the school compared with other schools of a similar grade and character. The marks of the children may all be averaged together, and the proficiency of the teacher may be judged upon this one basis, which should by no means be the only basis.

There are certain tests that should be made regularly.

The first of these are of health and physique. With proper apparatus, the visiting supervisor, with or without the assistance of the teacher, may test the lung capacity, eyesight, hearing, and general condition of the children.

Such a physical test ought to be made at least once a year.

The medical inspection by a competent physician should be made monthly through the school, and, where the school numbers several hundred pupils, should be supplemented by daily visits to inspect such cases as may be referred to him by the principal.

There ought also to be a test of the voices of the children. This may be made by the teacher with the supervisor of music.

Such a voice test is an excellent correlative of the health test, since a good voice indicates sound health.

As to the visits of the regular supervisor, their number and nature, everything depends upon the size of the school system, that is, the proportion of the numbers of teachers and supervisors. The visits of the school superintendent should be as frequent as possible, even if only a minute or two can be spared for each room. On the other hand, it is best for supervisors of special subjects to make few but thorough visits, rather than many of brief duration.

No correction of any error made by a teacher in the course of her instruction should ever be given in the presence of children. The quieter the manner of the supervisor, the better. As far as possible, the supervisor should not break sharply upon the normal atmosphere of the class room unless that atmosphere is very bad. Even in such a case, the good order enforced by the supervisor makes the bad order of the teacher even worse by contrast. Obviously, the method employed by the supervisor in the visits will depend largely upon the subject. An art supervisor calls to see the results of the children's work and very likely to see a lesson given by the teacher. Occasionally the supervisor should give a lesson.

Every supervisor should keep a daily record of visits and conversations, of lessons, of letters, and of all other affairs connected with his office. This may be the briefest memorandum, or an elaborate statement. The values of this record are three in number. For the first, the supervisor himself knows definitely what he has done. He can review his own work by week, by term, or by year. For the second, he has practically an indisputable record for all sorts of matters. No superior authority can safely call him to account for dereliction of duty. No subordinate can safely complain of comparative neglect. For the third, he has a basis for recommendations to the board of education, or to support recommendations of others. Such a diary of duties done corresponds with the merchant's bookkeeping, and is not less important. Whether a superintendent or special supervisor should give subordinates copies from time to time of his own entries upon personal or official records may be debatable. The reasons for giving copies of the records or for permitting access to original records outweigh in most particular instances the objections to so doing.

Various forms of reports by supervisors to the superintendent may be desired. Undoubtedly, such reports take time, and may be too elaborate. But a brief weekly, or at least monthly, résumé of visits made, and of criticisms or opinions, not to exceed, in the latter case, a thousand words, is very desirable. A committee on instruction of a board of education may find a file of such résumés very helpful and very convincing in many difficult and otherwise doubtful matters.

Every graded public school needs a permanent record of the register of pupils and of their record at school. In these times, the register may best be kept by the "card index system."¹

The question of marks is debatable. It arises in every community. A change in the marking system from letters to words or from words to letters, from words to per cents, or from per cents to letters, usually for a time affects favorably the work of the students, because without change there can be no life; and though not all change is progress, there is no progress without change.²

The modern school is the great instrument of society for the prevention, avoidance, and removal of poverty. The causes of poverty are ignorance, disease, isolation, fraud,

¹ See Appendixes for all these matters.

² It is not within the purview of this book to discuss thoroughly pedagogical questions. I state my own preferences in the Appendix. The points of importance are that studies or exercises taking much time should be given a higher value than others in determining or in influencing promotion, and that daily work should be considered as well as tests and examinations. It is my own opinion that no final examinations should ever be given in the common schools except as offering an opportunity to make up a year of failure or a period of absence.

In view of the great difficulties that many pupils of mediocre ability encounter in public schools, a plan has been devised by Superintendent John Kennedy, by which one half the time of each pupil is devoted to individual study with the assistance of the teacher when necessary. This Batavia plan can be carried on either with two teachers in a room, one who devotes entire time to giving recitations, and the other, entire time to giving individual instruction, or by one teacher in a room, who devotes one half her time to giving recitations and the other half to giving individual instruction.

and servitude to privilege or to tyranny. As far as disease, fraud, and tyranny are preventable, they are the results of ignorance; but they are not always preventable by man's present knowledge of Nature and of human nature. There are no poor persons whose poverty may not be accounted for by one or more of these causes. Therefore, to promote intelligence, association, health, honesty, and independence is to remove the causes of poverty, the chief ill of human life.

Compulsory attendance upon school is now legally required in many States and is actually enforced in several. The need for it arises from three different causes: First, the indifference of parents to the welfare of their children. Second, the parsimony and ignorance of the citizens in failing to provide good teachers and interesting school courses to attract and to hold the pupils. Third, the undeniable mental or moral or physical defects or derangements of certain children. It follows that a regular attendance officer (not a policeman) or a body of such officers should be employed to bring pupils to school and to keep them there; that a first-class school should be maintained; that for the defective and incorrigible there should be provided ungraded classes or reform home schools; and that parents who break the law should be fined or imprisoned. In one case in a hundred or two hundred, the community ought to provide the bare necessities of life to help a widow or an invalid father. The compulsory age limits should be from seven to fifteen or sixteen.

To enforce compulsory education, thus bringing defective and incorrigible children into the schools, but not to make special provision for them, is to discourage the attendance of sensitive, quiet children. It injures the ordinary school work without doing anything valuable for the incorrigibles; and it tends to encourage the development of private schools, and to alienate the support of the public schools by the parents of the orderly but easily disturbed children.

CHAPTER IX

THE STATE SYSTEM AND THE DISTRICT SCHOOL

FOR the purposes of administration and supervision the jurisdiction of the United States Bureau of Education may be ignored. Whether or not there should be more national control of all American public schools than there is at present is a debatable question of such magnitude as properly to require a book by itself. At the present time, we are required to think almost exclusively of the State systems¹ and of their subordinate districts, the city schools and the country schools. Between these two in most States is the township school.

Whether or not there should be more State control of free public schools is at the present time scarcely a debatable question. The tendency is decidedly in the direction of centralization, in the interests of efficiency and progress. For a well-developed educational system there might be the following organization : —

1. A State board of education, of from seven to fifteen members well distributed through the State, appointed by the governor for a term of five or seven years, from two classes of eligible persons : First, not less than half should be either public school educators holding the highest State

¹ Most of this book is concerned with a discussion of the questions involved in the administration and supervision of the school systems of communities of from five to fifty thousand people. Nevertheless, for the complete view, it is necessary to consider briefly the State system as a whole, and the country school so far as it exists apart from cities. The State system and the country schools, now combined in union graded schools or in city systems, are among the weakest features in American free public education.

certificate, or presidents or professors of incorporated colleges granting degrees. Second, present or former members of municipal boards of education who have served at least two years. These latter should have some conspicuous qualifications for the position, such as professional reputation in law, or medicine, or success in public office, or business success coupled with philanthropy.¹

2. A State board of examiners of from three to five members, whose business it should be to make all rules and regulations for all kinds of teachers' certificates. This board should be composed exclusively of professional educators, appointed by the State board of education.

3. A State superintendent of public instruction, who should be secretary of the State board of education, and elected by it to his office. He should be *ex officio* a member of the board of examiners. He should hold the highest State teacher's certificate before being appointed to his office, and have a tenure of at least five years.

4. A body of county superintendents with jurisdiction over one or more counties, who should be appointed to their office by the State board of education. These men should hold the highest State certificate and should have tenure of office.

5. A board of county examiners, who should have charge of certificating teachers for township and district schools. These examiners should themselves hold the highest State teacher's certificate.

The question arises immediately as to what the relation of city, township, and district schools should be to the

¹ A State board of health without a physician upon it would be considered as an absurdity. Since the State board of education has no power to levy taxes and a great deal of power over professional matters, it should be regarded as a State council of education and should, therefore, be composed partly of educational administrators, and partly of educational legislators. No stream can rise higher than its source. Such a board would be respected by the State legislature to which it would stand as an expert advisory commission.

State school system. For this relation the following plan is suggested :¹—

A State tax upon all property of not less than three mills per dollar. The total sum thus raised may be apportioned by the State superintendent as follows:—

1. For every properly certificated superintendent, and for every supervising principal employed in city or town, 40 per cent of the salary paid.

2. For every manual training teacher employed, or other specialist in subjects that the State wishes to encourage, 50 per cent of the salary paid.

3. For every other teacher on the pay-roll of city, town, or district, 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent of the salary paid, provided that no apportionment as above should be less than \$600 for the superintendent, \$300 for the manual training teacher, and \$200 for the other teachers.

Only by such encouragement as I have suggested will the poorer districts be able to employ first-class officers and teachers.

4. The balance of the State money raised may be apportioned wisely *pro rata* among all the communities for days' attendance.²

The purpose of the foregoing plan is to strengthen the school administration of particular municipalities and counties. One of the weak features of American education to-day seems to be along the line of supervision and administration. Thus, we seem to have better teachers than financial support or professional leadership for them. The remedy for this is to give the county superintendent more jurisdiction over the course of study and over the teachers. It would seem that these men should have jurisdiction coördinate with and not much less extended than that of the city superintendents. In other words, nominations for teachers and suggestions for listing text-books should emanate from them. They should have certain veto powers, subject to appeal to the State authorities. Upon this basis, and upon this alone, can rural education be made professional in its character. It is a most regrettable fact that to-day few county superintendents have been professionally prepared for their office and are exercising its duties skilfully.³

¹ This is substantially the plan adopted and now successfully carried on in the State of New Jersey.

² The State of New Jersey provides that all money raised in a county shall go back to that same county. Consequently, some counties have available four cents a day for attendance, while others have much less.

³ It is impossible in these pages to treat adequately this subject, which is so admirably

The State school systems, like the local school systems, as they exist in America, illustrate the undue preponderance of the legislative power that is characteristic of democracy. This was the reaction from European executive tyranny. Said James Madison in the Constitutional Convention of 1787, "The tendency of republican governments is to aggrandize the legislature at the expense of the other departments. The executives of the State are little more than ciphers: the legislatures are omnipotent. The founders of our republic seem never to have recollected the danger from legislative usurpations, which by assembling all power in the same hands, must lead to the same tyranny as is threatened by executive usurpations." Wilson of Pennsylvania said, "No adequate self-defensive power has been granted to the executive or the judicial departments." Judge Story upon the same subject declared, "There is a constitutional necessity of arming the weaker branch, as the executive unquestionably is, with powers for its own defense." Of all departments, that of education most needs to have a strong executive branch because it requires experts to perform its functions. Yet, in fact, no department of the State government more completely illustrates the weakness of the executive than that of education, with its board of education in almost entire control of State and county superintendents.

The district school in America to this day enrolls a very considerable proportion of all the school children of the country. It still continues (despite the growth of the cities) to be the chief instrument of modern American education. Even at the present time, most of the people of our country live in communities with less than four thousand people. It is true that in many communities of less than four thousand population there are schools that may not properly be called district or rural schools; but it is often overlooked that in many towns and even cities there are isolated schools that may properly be called district schools.

discussed in Seeley's "School Management." Many points are touched upon in this chapter mainly because of their bearing upon the discussion in other chapters and upon the general argument of the book.

In its literal meaning, a district school is simply the school of a certain section of country set off from other sections and organized as a school district, a separate governmental jurisdiction. But in its popular meaning, a district school is a country school of one or two teachers and not closely graded. In this sense, a school with one teacher for children of various ages, from five to twenty, is a district school. A school with two teachers for sixty or eighty children is virtually a district school, even when the children are separated into two divisions, a higher and a lower. The line that divides the district from the graded school cannot be drawn definitely. But a school with three teachers, lowest, intermediate, and highest, is scarcely a district school, in the popular meaning of that term.

The district school has the merits of its quality. In it, practically every child is taught individually. The groups are necessarily small and numerous. The teacher adapts the work to the powers, needs, and interests of each child. *Per contra*, the amount of time that can be given to each individual is very small, and the length of each recitation is very brief. Only a limited range of subjects may be introduced. For a school of forty children ranging in age from six to fourteen years, all in the care of one teacher, there may be provided a program of some twenty-five periods of recitations and exercises within the school day of five hours. This means that the average length of each lesson is about ten minutes. The arrangement of the program must depend upon the ages and requirements of the children, the size and convenience of the class room, and the abundance of books, supplies, and other equipment and apparatus. In such a school, it is generally wise to grade by not over three subjects, and better by two; namely, English and arithmetic. The three subjects may be

English, arithmetic, and geography, the last to be used as the core of the Nature study and the correlative of history. Such a school should have the following studies and exercises in addition to these three: music, writing, spelling, physiology, drawing, and history. Obviously, not all these subjects should be taught to all the children, nor should all of them be pursued at the same time. When each primary child has three lessons a day with busy work in the interims, and each intermediate child has four lessons, and each grammar or advanced child has five daily, the school is doing very well.

In arranging the program, it is desirable that the recitations should be followed by study periods. In some exercises, such as music and drawing, all the pupils may be brought together. In certain other subjects, such as writing and spelling, the pupils may be divided into two divisions. However, in this matter of grouping, special conditions must control.

The district school teacher is instructor, administrator, and disciplinarian. Where the school is composed chiefly of young children, a woman will have better success than a man. When the district school includes many large boys, it is a rare woman who can succeed, both in instruction and control. However, she is just as likely to succeed as a man, unless the man is worth a much larger salary than the woman receives.

However, it is not so much with these aspects that I wish to deal, as it is with the relation of the school to the community and to the nation. As generally administered by the school trustees, or board of trustees, the district school, in certain respects, is a menace to the welfare of cities, and indeed to that of the country districts themselves. Too often the teacher is considered as a hireling,

and is employed for a term or at most for a year. The program of the school children is simply a succession of years of instruction, sometimes good and sometimes bad. Building one year upon another cannot properly be accomplished, since the new teacher does not know what the former teacher taught, and does not know what to expect from the pupils. Boys and girls as they grow in years lose confidence in the value of schools, and "finish" their education when but imperfectly prepared for life. Occasionally, a boy of more than average strength of mind or of character survives this purposeless course and becomes a useful citizen in country or in city, where he praises the district school, investing it with the charm of all the experiences of his youth. It may be admitted that such a process of education tends to develop self-reliance, but otherwise, it is not especially valuable. Since the school is the chief fountain of intelligence in a country district, and since most pupils leave school at twelve or fourteen years of age, few country-bred persons possess sufficient knowledge to transact successfully the business, individual and social, of modern American city life. The menace of the rural school, thus taught by a succession of teachers, is in relation to the city, and special. The country is constantly supplying experienced teachers eager to take low salaries in towns and cities, but who, when carefully examined, are found really to know nothing of the art of teaching.

Very often such teachers are normal school graduates, notwithstanding which fact they accept eagerly in the cities salaries which city young men and young women know are altogether insufficient for their support. Five or six hundred dollars a year seems very large to a country boy or girl, while the city youth knows that such an income provides only a hall bedroom and boarding-house fare, in short, such living accommodations as no teacher should be compelled to accept.

Since the city is constantly recruited from the country, many citizens regard the city schools as centers of extravagance and the city teachers as overpaid and underworked. Until the requirements to teach in cities are increased to the professional standard, until this standard is maintained, and until the emigration of country people other than teachers to the cities has ceased, the available supply of country teachers will continue to be used by ignorant and designing boards of education as a club to beat the city teachers into a reluctant acceptance of low salaries.

Nothing of this is to be taken as condemnation of the exceptional "born" teacher, who is discovered in the country. In these times, such a teacher is the first person in all his or her circle of people to discover that skilful teaching requires a body of knowledge that may be drawn upon in instruction. As soon as possible after this discovery, the born teacher posts off to normal school or college in order to acquire this knowledge.

As a preparation for executive work, a year or two of district school experience is invaluable to a teacher before or after normal school or college. If the experience comes before the normal school or college, the teacher has the practical knowledge of school needs which enables him, or her, to appreciate the instruction. On the other hand, if the experience is immediately after the course in higher education, the teacher is thereby enabled to practice, in the light of principles, the great art of self-direction. It is an unfortunate fact that a few graduates of college or normal schools fail to develop properly because of too close supervision; this hampers the young teacher's eager activities. In the district school the teacher finds ample room for the exercise of all qualities, physical, moral, and intellectual. Were it possible to secure for all district schools normal and college graduates with intelligent supervision, a wonderful revolution would thereby be effected that would operate wholly for the good of the American people. Country children would find new inspiration in their daily lives.

Notwithstanding all that can be said in favor of the district school, its advantages are so inferior to those of the graded school that a great movement is now taking

place to transport country children to the town schools. This is called rural transportation. By this means children are brought in vehicles from the farms for miles around into central or union schools, taught and managed by experienced teachers.

A world of romance attaches itself to "the little red schoolhouse," but it is giving place to the better modern graded school.

The great lack of the district school (and I may say of the district school board also) is the lack of competent skilled supervision. It is often true of the members of a school board in the country that they are well meaning and would do the right thing if they knew how, but that they are ignorant and incompetent. And it is often true of the country teacher that she is earnest and conscientious and welcomes the help she needs to make her work efficient. The most hopeful thing in rural education is the rapid increase of township supervision, of rural graded schools, and of transportation. By means of these things the rural school may be brought to share in the wonderful improvement that has come to our city and town schools during the last twenty-five years, largely through the development of school supervision.¹

¹ The practice in many States of appointing text-book commissions to decide what text-books shall be used in all the schools has certain things in its favor, of which the chief are economy and uniformity. But on the whole, the method is to be reprehended by the educational profession, chiefly because its tendency is against the development of individuality in school systems. This individuality is the real secret of the progress of American education because it encourages experiments. When commissions are appointed for the selection of text-books for the schools, it is very important that school superintendents and other practical educators actually in school positions should constitute at least three fourths of the membership. It is also desirable that there should be options in all important subjects, that is, two text-books in each of the following: arithmetic, grammar, language, etc.

CHAPTER X

THE PRIVATE SCHOOL

IN modern American education, besides the free common public schools, which constitute the main subject of this book, there are private schools of various kinds and grades. The term "private" is used in contradistinction from public in the American sense of free to the public.¹ In this sense, all schools in which any fees are exacted as a prerequisite for attendance, and those into which are admitted only such pupils as the schools choose upon rules determined by themselves, are private schools. They include schools without endowments and wholly dependent upon tuition fees, and schools with endowments and either in whole or in part independent of tuition fees. In these meanings of the terms "private" and "public," the State universities are public, while such universities² as Harvard and Leland Stanford are private, and the high schools are public, while Girard College and the Phillips Academies are private.

For the purposes of this very brief discussion of the administration of private schools, they may be divided into the proprietary schools without endowments and the fiduciary schools with endowments. The discussion will be confined to those points in which such schools differ educationally from free common schools. A different discus-

¹ Public, in the English sense, means open to the public on equal terms.

² For a discussion of the administration of higher institutions, see that admirable book, "College Administration," by President Charles F. Thwing, Western Reserve University.

sion of private schools may be made by grouping them as day and boarding schools, giving in all four kinds of private schools, viz. :—

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------|
| 1. Proprietary, day | } schools. |
| 2. Fiduciary, day | |
| 3. Proprietary, boarding | |
| 4. Fiduciary, boarding | |

The proprietary school is an educational enterprise run for financial returns to the proprietor, whose purpose is to furnish good educational opportunities for the money received. Its value to the pupils depends upon the character and ability of the proprietor. The proprietary school owned by a man, or by a partnership composed of men, of sound judgment, of high ideals, of wide and thorough scholarship, and of energy, and patronized by a clientele of cultivated and wealthy persons, may be made a nobler and a more effective instrument of education than any endowed or public school, upon three conditions :—

First, all undesirable pupils may be excluded so that the body of students may become of high grade in character and ability. Then begins a natural process of selection by the development among the pupils of a right school tradition. The pupils themselves are glad to see desirable companions admitted and undesirable ones rejected.

Second, large salaries for instructors may be provided for relatively small classes of pupils.

Third, owing to the simplicity of the chief punishment, exclusion from the school, the discipline may be made perfect.

The first effort of the owner of such a school must be to fill it and to create a "waiting list." This ambition affects equally the kindergarten or the academy that is privately owned. The private school of this kind must have a

standard number of pupils, whether twenty or two hundred, and enlargement of accommodation must be resorted to only upon long and thorough consideration. Vacancies must be filled promptly and without cut in price. The life of the proprietor is necessarily at a high tension. One poor teacher may work irreparable harm. One bad boy may equally injure the school. Summary and quiet removals are imperative. The discharge of the poor teacher and the expulsion of the bad boy are as good advertisements as the success of graduates in higher institutions or in business or in society.

The proprietor of the private school, not only upon grounds of the higher morality, but also upon those of business expediency, should be guided and governed by such principles as these, namely:—

1. To regard all parents as clients and all pupils as charges or wards, and to insist upon being regarded by parents as an attorney and counselor in education, and by all pupils as a friendly but authoritative guardian. By thus establishing and maintaining his position, the proprietor establishes his independence and maintains his self-respect.

2. To aim at permanent financial success and to use every reputable means to secure it, making such success the paramount object. The unforgivable thing in business is failure: in the educational business of a private school, two things are unforgivable, success with dishonor, and financial failure for any cause. To secure business success, a school proprietor must often make immediate educational results secondary.

3. To employ as teachers only such as are attractive in appearance and agreeable in personality, naturally loyal and not ambitious in the sense of desiring personal

success, industrious, strong, youthful in spirits, and not too shrewd in insight into human nature, honest, and with a high sense of honor. A successful private school teacher, an employee of the owner, may secure a high salary, a much higher salary than those receive who are employed in corresponding public school positions. But such persons are never of the personal temper or disposition of the successful public school teachers. A private school centers about the proprietor, who is chief in all things. A public school has no center, but offers several equal relationships, — to the principal, the superintendent, the board of education, the body of parents. The proprietary private school is a despotism, a despotism that is like a great and affectionate patriarchal family sometimes, but often a despotism in which many members of the school household are earnestly longing for escape.

4. To give the best instruction that his revenues will allow to his students in relation to their individual needs. The one great feature of the private as compared with the public free school is the individual instruction.¹ Even though the stay of the individual pupil in the private school is usually short, the proprietor ought to have a record of his

¹ It is not within the scope of the purpose of this book to discuss the relative advantages and disadvantages of private and of public schools. The suggestions in this chapter concern only the administration of private schools.

A large difference generally existing between private schools and public schools is that the private school, whether secondary in character or not, has for its leading purpose the preparation of boys or girls for college. It is perfectly true that a very considerable number of the children in the private school do not go to college, but in many parts of our country the proportion of college preparatory students in the grades of the private school that correspond with the highest two or three grammar classes or the high school, is very much larger than is the proportion in the public school. Probably a majority of the parents of the boys who go to the private school expect to send their sons to college or other higher institution of learning. This affects in a considerable degree the administrative problem of the private school, especially of the private secondary school. For one thing, it necessitates the employment of a faculty composed of college graduates; and in the second place, it necessitates the organization of the work in the private school along the lines laid down by the entrance examinations of colleges.

age, intellectual acquirements, physical condition, — weight, height, eyesight, hearing, strength, — upon entrance and upon half-year intervals. Quite as much as the principal of the public school, the proprietor of the private school should be a practical student of children and youth, a working psychologist.

5. To interest himself *in loco parentis* in the whole welfare of the student. The head master of high ideals and fine personality becomes a radiant influence, and with his teachers and his own family, especially his wife, touches the lives of all the pupils in the class room, upon the playground, in the dormitory. Child study has nowhere else such an opportunity as in the boarding school, whose head master ought to observe accurately, with the eye of affectionate interest, and to express his conclusions in vital methods. Even the family life of the boy or of the girl can scarcely be as intimately devoted to his or her welfare as can the boarding school life. A virile sympathy of relation — the approach that a boy recognizes as understanding him in both his strength and his weakness — often works a miracle with the “idler” and the “bluffer.”

This principle applies equally to the proprietor of the day school and to the proprietor of the boarding school.¹

The proprietary day school differs in the concerns of management from the proprietary boarding school in two important respects. The proprietor of the day school lives in the community of the parents, with any of whom he

¹ To affirm this principle is to rule out of the profession of education all persons who advertise to teach their students so much knowledge within a given period of time. To illustrate: The man who advertised in a certain city in 1903 that he prepared boys for college and wasted no time on physical training or Bible reading, or anything not explicitly connected with college entrance examinations, was not an educator, and evidently was very anxious to have the fact known. Similar illustrations of inculcating knowledge without “wasting time” may be seen frequently in the advertisements and corroborated in the management of “business colleges.”

may consult at their homes or in his office whenever he desires. His discipline has such support as the parents, by their character and time, are able to give. He cannot isolate the pupils from their home environment, which may be good or may be colorless, mischievous, or evil.

The fact that the parents send their child to a day school may indicate any one of several facts, namely : —

1. The public schools may be very poor in quality.
2. Whether the public schools be good or bad, the child may be mischievous, malicious, defective, sickly, or otherwise not sufficiently normal to be able to go to the free school and to stay there.
3. The parents have sufficient property or income to afford to pay for special educational opportunities.
4. The parents may desire to separate their children from the public school children, because of any one of several reasons : pride, culture, ambition, discouragement.

The proprietor comes into personal relation with the parents upon many matters ; and he must have a keen insight into the characters of adults as well as of children.

In a second respect, the position of the owner of a day school differs from that of the owner of a boarding school. The former has not, while the latter has, control of the pupils' time out of the school hall. The burden upon the proprietor of the boarding school is very great ; it is a burden of additional business, to furnish and care for rooms and meals, and a burden of additional responsibility, to see that the pupils' out-of-school time is well spent. In this respect, the opportunity of the proprietor of the day school is less. While he may greatly influence the parents and the pupils in regard to the use of afternoons and of evenings, of holidays and of vacations, he has no more authority in these matters than a public school principal.

It appears upon the face of the foregoing discussion that the successful proprietor of a day school must be a

skilful observer of human nature, a good judge of teachers, and a competent business man. The successful proprietor of a boarding school must be an unusually expert business man and decidedly a student of education.¹

Midway between the private school that is entirely dependent upon the payments for the school privileges and the free public school is the private school with an endowment. In an economic sense, the free school is an "endowed school," the endowments being certain receipts from current taxes and from bond issues granted by the people of the district or of the State, or, in their respective parts, by both. It is desirable to have a clear view of the exact position, in the economic world, of the three forms of school that are under discussion in this chapter and elsewhere in this book. Of the wealth produced by a nation utilizing its labor, land, and capital, we may make the following analysis : —

1. Wages for labor and salaries for services.
2. Taxes for government.
3. Rent of land.
4. Interest upon capital.
5. Profits for the managers of business.

Of these items, for the purposes of this discussion, we may consider that everything except wages represents a portion of the surplus annually earned. This is not exactly true, since the wages of certain employees exceed

¹ Grave arguments are sometimes heard as to whether private or public schools require, in their executive heads, men of the greater ability and scholarship and of the finer character. Certain qualities all proprietors, presidents, principals, and superintendents must have in common. The routinist is safer in the public school than in the private. The man of weak health is better off in the public school, for the cares are less. The gains of the successful private school manager will always be greater than the salary of the principal or superintendent, for the work is harder; in the case of the boarding school manager, the work is incomparably harder. On the other hand, the scholarship requirements of the public school positions are greater than are those of the proprietary positions of authority.

the cost of their necessities of life. At the same time, it is ethically true that rent, interest, taxes, and profits ought to cease before the workers of the nation are reduced to poverty, which may be defined as that condition of life in which an individual has an income insufficient for the purchase of all necessary food and clothing, shelter and fuel, for himself and those naturally dependent upon him.

Obviously, the free public school is supported by the second of the above items, the taxes. In a certain sense, the taxes represent both necessities and the surplus. Without government, most enterprises in modern business would cease at once, and dire starvation would set in. At the same time, the larger part of the annual taxes is spent for government purposes other than social protection. It is equally obvious that the pay school has few patrons that are dependent upon wages for their incomes. In consequence, the private school is distinctly an enterprise supported by the surplus wealth of the people. The pupils in private schools are characteristically the children of landlords, of capitalists, and of managers of business.

The private school with an endowment fund is to that extent a landlord with rents and a capitalist with funds at interest. While the public school is supported by the levy of tax upon every piece of property within a given jurisdiction, the endowed private school is supported by levies of interest and rent upon various properties and business concerns. So far as the rents and interests are enforceable by the powers of government, the endowed school is a quasi-public enterprise.

A question naturally arises as to whether endowed social institutions are likely to increase or to diminish in wealth in proportion to the wealth of the entire country. It is remembered by those who ask this question, that in various

civilized nations, at certain stages in their social development, churches and monasteries, schools and hospitals, have held relatively great amounts of real estate and of other income-producing properties. Such, it appears, is the tendency of this nation at the present time. The wages of the wealth-producing employees are at this time scarcely twenty per cent of the total wealth that they produce. The other eighty per cent goes for so-called raw materials, taxes, rents, interest, and profit.¹ Stocks, bonds, mortgages, and other estates in land are steadily gravitating into the hands of the wealthy, who pass increasing proportions of them over into the possession of libraries, schools, hospitals, missionary societies, and other charitable institutions. The amount of property thus isolated has reached a billion dollars, relatively an inconsiderable sum in view of the hundred billions of the national wealth. The important element in this tendency is, that these endowments represent what is substantially a return to the public, of surplus wealth earned by the general community, and saved by individuals.

While a school endowed so richly that it may charge small tuition fees, is in many ways the most fortunate of all schools, the position of the principal or president is not necessarily more attractive than either that of the public school principal or superintendent, or that of the proprietor of a school supported entirely by tuitions. Like the superintendent of a public school system, the principal of an endowed academy is subject to a board of control, and is vitally concerned with the question of income. Such a principal or president discusses endowments, their investments and income, and their increase, where the public school superintendent discusses current appropriations

¹ See Appendix II.

and bond issues. He has usually a much smaller field, for there are few endowed schools with over twenty or thirty teachers, and almost no superintendencies with less. Like the proprietor of the pay school, the principal of the endowed school must secure students so as to increase his revenues. As already indicated, he has the additional anxiety of trying to enlarge his endowments by obtaining donations from men of wealth. In particular, he needs scholarship funds, so that deserving poor students may attend irrespective of their private means.

The endowed school has one great opportunity of service to the American people. It may fairly try experiments along new lines. Such experiments the proprietor of a day school scarcely dares to attempt lest he alienate his patrons. The public school principal or superintendent can scarcely ever persuade his board of control to permit him to make the experiments. When the experiments fail, he is almost certain to lose his position. For the origination of progressive movements in education, we must continue to look to endowed schools.¹ Similarly, to private schools we may look for the preservation of the interests of individuals. Correspondingly, we may always expect to find in the public schools a system of education standardized for the preservation of the general welfare of society.²

That there is a real demand for private schools to-day,

¹ In this respect, Cooper, Pratt, Drexel, and Armour Institutes, and the experimental schools of certain universities have done notable service.

² It is the purpose of this book to present the principles of public school administration. In view of my experience in proprietary and endowed private schools, I should be glad to present a much more specific treatment of this great and important topic. Those who would like to follow the matter further may read with profit Adams, "Some Famous American Schools," which offers a suggestive treatment. The types of such schools are far more numerous and extreme than the public schools represent, so that they do not lend themselves to one general treatment. My few words upon the subject here are designed by contrast to bring out clearly the position of the public school.

there can be no question. This demand arises from a social need, and causes the continuance of both proprietary and fiduciary schools. It is a demand from several quarters, and may be considered, therefore, in a sense, universal. The nature of these demands has been considered at various points in the preceding pages. To add to those already suggested, attention may be called to that large class of our citizens who are engaged in government or private employment requiring changes of family quarters to such an extent that a child cannot be kept permanently at school except in a private school. There are tens of thousands of parents of children who go about from one city to another every year. From business reasons, they are compelled to make their home where they find it. Such children suffer greatly when the parents are compelled to keep them in public schools, for in making transfers they lose standing because of the over-rigidity of most public schools. Further, there is now a large class of citizens whose means are so great and whose labors in connection with them are so constant that they have no time to devote to personal care of their children. This fact may indicate a social disease, but it is none the less true, and it is at present irremediable. We must consider the flourishing private school that manages to endure for a period of years, and indicates thereby its real value, as a decidedly important feature of American education.

CHAPTER XI

THE TEACHER AS ADMINISTRATOR AND SUPERVISOR

THE functions of the teacher may be classed under four heads: instruction, discipline, supervision, and administration.

As an instructor, the teacher inculcates knowledge; as a disciplinarian, he, or she, keeps each individual and the class steadily at work either of study or of recitation. Many manuals have dealt fully with these two aspects of the teacher's profession. Several other books have thrown out interesting suggestions.¹

As a supervisor, the teacher oversees and directs the pupil's use of time. And as administrator, the teacher makes his own program and that of his scholars.

Supervision and administration by the teacher are not less important than instruction and discipline. The artist is displayed in the performance of these duties quite as much as in teaching and control, which are more apt to attract public attention.

In many school systems, teachers are required to furnish daily to the principal of the school a program of the proposed next day's work. This includes the lessons both as topics and in text-book pages which are to be studied. In other schools, the teachers make weekly or monthly outlines of the work they have done, and also an outline of the work they propose to do. This combined prospectus and review is sometimes required in addition to daily programs. Such frequent reports by the teacher to the

¹ See especially Hinsdale, "The Art of Study."

immediate supervising officer do not necessarily restrict the freedom of the teacher. Such freedom is of the utmost value to any school system. The teacher who is relatively free becomes self-reliant and thoughtful and often is able to originate extremely valuable suggestions. A person who is independent becomes responsible and has a dignity of character that a mere clerk can never have as a teacher in a schoolroom. Whether such reports are compatible with that other system of supervision by which the supervisors give minute instructions to teachers as to what they should teach and how they should teach it, is a fair question; but there is no question whatever as to whether the teacher who may safely be trusted to plan and to organize and to carry out his own ideas is a person of distinctly higher grade of ability and character than those who are incompetent for a large measure of self-direction. Superintendents sometimes are unable to distinguish between supervision and autocratic assignment of specific details. Obviously, the teacher who to a large extent plans his own work cannot exist in the school system of which the supervisor boasts, "I know at this hour and minute what every teacher in my schools is teaching." Such a method of so-called supervision is distinctly un-American, and where it exists is a public confession of the comparative incompetency of the class room teachers or of the superintendent.

This does not mean that the teacher should decide as to whether the work in given grades should be upon certain topics or not. Such matters are decided by the course of study; but it does mean that for the daily lengths of lessons, devices, home preparation, schoolroom study, notebook work, and similar matters, the teacher, not the principal or the supervisor, is primarily responsible. Moreover, a course of study that has been developed

largely by the advice of teachers actually engaged in class room work is certain to be better in various important respects than the course of study that is prepared solely by superintendents and boards of education.¹

As administrator, the first business of the teacher is to learn thoroughly how much work in each subject the class is expected to cover within a period of time spent in a grade. This must be known with reference to all subjects before plans can be made for any one subject. As supervisor the first business of the teacher is to inform himself exactly regarding the proficiency of the children in all these subjects. Ordinarily, the school system will have a more or less definite assignment of time to be given to each separate subject per week or per month. The teacher, with or without consultation with the principal, is now ready to prepare the general program.²

The principles that govern the general program are these, namely :—

1. The most difficult study is usually placed first in the morning, then an easier study follows, and next a hard study.

2. The amount of time assigned to each study depends, within the limits of the course of study, upon the amount of information that the children are expected to receive by the pursuit of each study.

3. Ordinarily, but one difficult study or exercise is pursued in the afternoon session. It is well to have such a study as an inducement to regular attendance at school. As is well known, the children are not apt to make as good

¹ The nominating committee of the board of education of a certain city, in offering the superintendency of schools to an educator, said with approval that their course of study and rules and regulations had been prepared without a word of suggestion from any teacher, whether superintendent, principal, or kindergartner. The position was immediately declined. The later educational history of the city showed that the self-confidence of a highly cultured board is not less dangerous to the schools than the blundering ignorance of a board of uneducated men.

² For a general program, see Appendix VII.

progress in their afternoon studies as in the first two hours of the morning.

To be specific, in grammar grades, arithmetic or grammar may well be assigned to the first work of the morning. Either geography or history may be assigned to the work of the afternoon.

Whether every study or exercise shall have a place each day will depend upon the course of study and the general conditions of the school system. Obviously, physical training so far as it consists of class room calisthenics must be carried on every day. Where class room physical training is supplemented by drill in a gymnasium, the gymnastics occur several times a week. On such days, the class room calisthenics may be omitted.

This general program may be written upon the blackboard and kept there. It is convenient for reference by the superintendent or other visitor. It is also, both to the children and to the teacher, a valuable reminder of the passage of time.

The daily program is a much more particular matter. This is usually written upon a sheet of paper and kept upon the teacher's desk. It is made new each day. Its making usually occupies the last few minutes before the teacher leaves the schoolroom in the afternoon. A file of such daily programs is invaluable for purposes of consultation, both by the teacher and by the supervisor.¹

4. As a general proposition, exercises in the lowest primary grade should not last over fifteen minutes, while in the highest grammar grades they may be continued with profit forty-five minutes. Certain studies may be continued longer than others. The principle is not to continue a recitation longer than to the point at which the fatigue of the average child sets in.

¹ For an example of a daily program in a middle grammar grade, consult Appendix VIII.

As supervisor, the teacher secures ample information regarding the home conditions of each child, either meeting the parents at school or visiting them at their homes.

The younger the child, the more important are such consultations between parent and teacher. Such meetings and visits may at times be disagreeable and even painful, — disagreeable, because of the occasional antagonism of the parents to the apostles of culture; painful, because of the poverty and sorrow in many homes. Nevertheless, the teacher who has not the character, the ability, and the social power to sustain himself, or herself, in every possible meeting with the parent, is scarcely ready for a profession that requires not less insight and tact and personal force than any other.¹

The teacher with practical information about the children's conditions is in a position to give valuable advice to parents and children regarding such matters as : —

1. Fresh air in the sleeping rooms at night.
2. Eating cereals for breakfast, and not supplying the child with strong coffee and tea.
3. Correction by a skilful eye doctor of such defects as nearsightedness, farsightedness, astigmatism, strabismus, esophoria.
4. Refraining from violent physical punishment that lowers the tone of the child's physical system.²
5. Continuing the child at school for a sufficient length of time to permit him to gain some knowledge at least of history and geography.

¹ It is in this phase of supervision by the teacher that the practical value of child study is best seen. There is unfortunately as yet no book on child study that is wholly satisfactory, but the following books may be found helpful : Warner, "Study of Children and the Nervous System of the Child"; Taylor, "Study of the Child." By far the most helpful of all child study publications for teachers is the *Pedagogical Seminary*, a quarterly magazine, edited by President G. Stanley Hall of Clark University.

² Within my own personal experience was the case of a child who was steadily becoming more and more defective in mind. I found that the parent (who was a man of considerable income, and had an important business position) punished the child daily, using a lead pipe varied by a wooden fence picket. Within six months after this abuse was stopped, the child was restored to a normal condition of body, mind, and morals.

6. Securing the regular daily attendance of the child at school.

In many other matters, the teacher may give counsel whose value cannot be measured or expressed adequately in language. There seems to be a steady tendency on the part of adults to degenerate. The Master taught that the child renews the hope and the knowledge of the immortal life. Only by the activity of teachers, preachers, physicians, and others interested in the spiritual and moral welfare of the race can even the average culture of this country be maintained. That teacher has by no means performed his function in society who has taught the children well from nine to three o'clock daily and who has done nothing more.

Fundamental in the teacher's life is his management of his own time out of school. This matter is discussed so frequently in books, magazines, and newspapers that it may seem unnecessary to deal with it here. But certain principles seem to be neglected even by the writers of these books and articles; and they are sometimes not only neglected, but ignored, for a time, by practical and even successful teachers.

1. Every teacher, male or female, university graduate or not, young or old, must study. The mind must be a wellspring. This study must be regular, not only along the lines of the teaching profession, but also along other general lines.

The school superintendent, the supervisors, and the principals have obligations to young teachers in respect to such out-of-school study. In every school system, it is extremely desirable to offer courses of lectures, with essays by each attendant, upon subjects not directly connected with school work as well as upon educational subjects.¹

Such meetings of teachers may be arranged as circles, with a leader who takes charge of the general discussion, or as seminars, in which the leader directs the preparation of the thesis. Lecture courses or reading circles in which

¹ See Appendix X and Index.

the teacher takes no part are almost valueless. Indeed, for the best results, small groups are required, in which from a dozen to a score of teachers work together.

2. Every teacher needs outdoor exercise daily. This applies equally to the teacher who is employed in a school-house with the fresh air from a first-class ventilating system and to the teacher whose room is little better than the Black Hole at Calcutta. The value of outdoors is not only the value of fresh air, great as that is. Even in cities the teacher can find the outdoors Nature in the sky and the wind and the light. Parks are usually near. The teacher in the small city or town or in the open country has every possible inducement to walk daily in the world of Nature.

Moreover, in becoming a civilized being, man is perpetually in danger of becoming a slave to civilization. The teacher is constantly in danger of becoming afflicted with that strange disease which often afflicts men for a long time imprisoned within stone walls. It must be remembered that the teacher is the only person practicing a profession who is not thereby brought constantly into new scenes. The physician sees his patients in a great variety of conditions. The lawyer is learning something new all the time, and goes from a lawsuit about a piece of machinery to a struggle with a newspaper editor. The minister or priest sees a great variety of different adults and of different homes in the course of the performance of his parish rounds. But the teacher spends at least six hours daily for two hundred days within the same four walls, and it is on record that teachers have taught thirty years and more continuously in the same room. The only possible cure for the resultant confinement of the mind is to go out of doors daily as a lover of Nature.

3. The third principle that should be regarded by every

teacher, is to mingle daily and as much as possible with "all sorts and conditions" of people. There is a tendency on the part of supervisors to become dictatorial through overmuch contact with subordinates and with persons younger than themselves. There is a similar tendency on the part of teachers to become dogmatic and hard to get along with because of their daily contact with children and with other intellectual inferiors. The remedy for these narrowing influences is to associate with business men and home-making women as much and as frequently as time permits. For this same reason, every teacher should read the best daily and weekly papers and monthly magazines. This does not mean that the center of the teacher's interest should be transferred from the schoolroom, but it does mean that the life of a teacher should not be in a circle around one center, but in a great ellipse about two not distant foci.

The teacher as supervisor will be interested in the out-of-school reading of the children. He, or she, who is in a good school system will probably have access to a good school library, whose books may be circulated freely among the school children. Or, better, the school will have a class room library in every room. The competent teacher knows the names of hundreds of good books for children to read. In several States, there are funds apportioned to assist local districts to purchase library books.¹ In the same degree, the teacher is informed thoroughly regarding works of art, and makes suggestions for pictures not only for the school but also for the home. Indeed, the influence of the teacher in the matter of the home library and of home decoration cannot be overestimated.

¹ The State of New Jersey duplicates the first \$20 spent by a school for library books, and adds annually \$10 to assist in the establishment of a school library. This amount is not nearly enough, but it is a beginning and shows the tendency of legislation. In that State, the money may be used for scientific apparatus or for pictures as well as for books,

In certain quarters in the old days, it was thought to be enough for the teacher to know the fundamentals of the subjects actually to be taught in the class room. At the present time, we realize that no teacher can know too much of literature, art, science, and history. From great stores of knowledge, the teacher is able to meet the greatest possible variety of needs both of the individual pupils and of the class.

4. The fourth principle to be observed by all teachers is that of frequent renewal of knowledge relating theoretically and practically to the progress of education. It is desirable for all teachers to have visiting days, when they may see the schools of other teachers in actual operation. Perhaps the young teacher requires such opportunities of visiting schools when in session less than the older teacher. A fair allowance for such visits is two days a year for visits outside of the local system, and one or two in other schools of the system. In making this requirement of teachers, boards of education and school superintendents are doing more than they can possibly do in any other way, with an equal expenditure of time, to bring their schools up to at least the average condition of the best neighboring communities, for they bring into play the human spirit of emulation.

In making such visits, teachers do well to go to the school before the pupils have assembled, and to remain until after they have gone home, so as to acquaint themselves with the full day's routine. It is not, however, by any means necessary for teachers to confine their attention to any one grade or class. On the contrary, it is rather better to visit several classes, following the plan of many superintendents and calling at least twice in each room, rather than making long visits in any one room.

5. It is desirable for young teachers to remain not more than two years in the first school, and to begin low down in the grades. He finally makes the best high school teacher who has had some grammar school work, and she finally makes the best advanced grammar school teacher who has done primary work. The teacher who intends finally to do grammar work does well to begin with a third or fourth grade class. Persons with considerable versatility of talent do well to begin in the first-year grade, or even in the kindergarten. The principle involved is that of knowing the genesis and order of development of children's powers.

6. Every teacher, whether college president or kindergarten assistant, ought to know a good deal about the great new subject of child study, which is simply genetic psychology practically applied. This means that the teachers should know the needs and interests of children of both sexes in all the different years of their lives. Among the great topics of child study are these :—

1. The child's sense of honor.
2. Moral obligation.
3. Sense of responsibility.
4. Relation to other children.
5. Relation to adults.
6. Adolescence, considered : **Physically.**
7. **Mentally.**
8. **Morally.**
9. The mind of the child : **His imagination.**
10. His common sense.
11. His memory.
12. The soul of the child.
13. The principles governing : **His affections.**
14. His ambitions.
15. His motives.
16. His ideals.
17. The child's view of Nature.

18. His view of himself.
19. His view of society as a whole.
20. His views of the community surrounding him.
21. The physical life of a child.
22. The principles of growth.
23. The normal height and weight of children.
24. Defects of eyes, ears, spinal curvature, etc.

No teacher of experience and of proper training dreams of teaching a child the principles of long division before she understands how much the child knows of addition and subtraction and short division. And yet most teachers, without knowing the child's ideas of honor, will not hesitate to instruct the child in the principles of honor that control the life of an adult. Further, all of us are prone to err in our endeavor to impose the morals of persons of culture and opportunity upon the children of classes of people who have had no extended opportunities of such culture. In advanced school systems such topics are constantly being studied in teachers' circles. The study of the pupils as a class is not enough. What is required is that all teachers individually make child study in their own class rooms, and genetic psychology in their homes and during summer vacations, matters of vital professional concern. Only by such knowledge can the occupation of teaching be elevated above the plane of haphazard empiricism to that of a systematic science, and of an art involving and assuring skill.

One of the barriers to educational progress is the limitation of the school work by the criticisms of teachers and parents. Principals must be warned in their own minds of the fact that most parents are failures, and that only a few people in this world are successes as business men, as parents, and as citizens generally. It is not given to most

persons to succeed in life. It is a curious fact that those persons who fail are the very ones most likely to have positive opinions as to how to rear children for success in life. There is a psychological explanation for this condition of their minds, for conceit is the cause of most failures, and those who know things hardest and are least open to influence by others, are those who make the most mistakes in life. An open-minded, versatile man or woman is rare. Almost always such a person is successful.

This limitation of schools by parents, and often to a certain extent by teachers, affects the incoming studies chiefly.¹

For the last principle: Every teacher must rise to the twentieth-century point of view, and look into the future. In fact, the difference between educated and uneducated men and women is largely in the power of foresight. To know how things are progressing, and to see the variety of ways in which progress may take place, indicates true talent. All the value of wisdom is in foreseeing what is likely to come to pass. When one means that a certain otherwise probable future event shall not come to pass, the necessity of a preventive may be seen and its nature may be inquired into. To use medical terms, prognosis is as important as diagnosis, though it is dependent upon it. That is, there can be no foresight without insight. Moreover, there can be no insight without absolutely truthful memory. The use of the imagination for the teacher is in the suggestion of hypotheses. Once the hypothesis becomes the indicated or demonstrated truth, imagination should give way to observation and judgment. With this principle in mind, the importance of the teacher's foreseeing the possibilities of his own future and of the future of

¹ For a further discussion of this matter, see the chapter on the "New Education."

his children becomes apparent. This is the reason why the ambitious teacher who looks forward to the future is more useful than any other. The young man who, in the high school, forms plans for the time when he is to be a college professor or a school superintendent does better work than he who never dreams.

The question is sometimes raised as to whether young women teachers should regard themselves so wholly consecrated to the profession of teaching as never to consider the possibility of marriage. It is perfectly true that no person should ever enter the teaching profession who does not intend to remain in it always. But the woman who marries does not give up the profession of teaching, for the inevitable expectation of matrimony is maternal, and the mother is the first and greatest teacher. Indeed, all parents should understand pedagogy, which means literally, in the Greek, "the leading of children," or as some say, "the leading of the little children's helpless and wandering feet." It will be a fortunate day for this country when all boys and girls go to appropriate schools to the age of twenty; when in the last two years of the school period all take certain courses in physiology, psychology, and pedagogy. It is with the teacher, as with the business man,—the larger the horizon, the likelihood of the greater success. Men and women of large imagination are quite as likely to possess good common sense as those who have no imagination at all. There is as much sense in the poetic as in the prosaic. Poetic is from *ποιέω* and practical from *πράττω*, and both words mean "to do."

While it has been frequently said in this text that the woman principal and teacher is usually very successful in matters of detail, it is to be noted that young female teachers often exhibit the opposite quality of gross carelessness. Further, in connection with that quality they exhibit another quite as unfortunate, which is an extreme lack of judgment in the proportionate treatment of the different topics in school lessons.

It is important that young women teachers should be carefully watched by principals for both of these deficiencies. Their later success in school work depends almost entirely upon their learning accuracy and carefulness and in their coming through larger knowledge and more experience to a rational view of the relative importance of topics. Most young teachers insist upon dealing with the details

of such a study as geography with absurd thoroughness, while neglecting its broader aspects. This is equally true of history. In arithmetic, they tend to exaggerate the importance of the process and to forget the all-importance of the principle.

Were this text designed to discuss the pedagogy of education, this topic would be greatly expanded. The important thing here for the administrator to remember is the need of care in the supervision of young teachers in this respect. It is noteworthy that young men as teachers do not often tend to err in the second particular.

In this chapter, designed as it is for men as well as for women, it is necessary to discuss not only elementary and secondary school positions, but the so-called higher positions of the profession. In order of theoretical importance (were conditions ideal), school positions might be ranked as follows: —

1. The United States commissionership of education.
2. The State superintendency.
3. The State university chancellorship.
4. The State normal school principalship.
5. The college or university (private or endowed) presidency.
6. The city superintendency.
7. College instruction (professorship only).
8. The high school principalship.
- 9-10. The supervisors : (*a*), general ; (*b*), special.
11. The elementary school principalships.
12. High school instruction.
13. Elementary school instruction.
14. Kindergartening.

At first thought, it may seem strange to rank positions in this order, but upon consideration it will be seen that in point of fact the most important educational position in the United States to-day, is the New York city superintendency. Unfortunately, the importance of great city superintendencies is not sufficiently recognized in dollars and cents and in tenure. Those who direct the work of thousands of teachers and of normal schools that are preparing teachers, and the work of hundreds of thousands of children who are going to school to teachers, should outrank in the range and significance of their work the occupant of any university presidency.

During the twentieth century, normal school graduates without additional study should not expect to rise higher than elementary school

instruction. The college graduate who has had at least a year of professional training is needed for high school instruction. The normal school graduate with post graduate work is ready for elementary school principalships, but only the college graduate with several years of post graduate work has the right to aspire to the higher positions of the profession. Those boards of trustees of academies and colleges, and those boards of education of cities and indeed of States which elect, persons with less qualifications than are indicated in this discussion, are working injury to the cause of education, which is the cause of American democracy and the freedom of the whole human race. The success of the American experiment depends upon keeping in the teachers' and administrators' positions men and women who are qualified for them.

Another question in connection with this topic of the teacher as administrator and supervisor is whether there shall be departmental instruction in elementary schools. The general weight of opinion seems to be that the primary child should not have more than one teacher with an occasional visit from the supervisor. In the advanced grammar grades, during the last two or three years of the course, it is necessary to employ a few teachers with specialties. The best plans, however, do not involve instruction by more than three or four different teachers. Consequently, the teacher who aspires to do advanced work must select studies in which he or she may be prepared best to give instruction. Various combinations of the ordinary studies may be made. The line of division seems to be that, where two teachers are employed, one takes arithmetic, and the other the language course. Ordinarily, history and geography, or geography and science, are taught by the same teacher. Where instruction is given in drawing, in manual training, in music, and in penmanship, it is seldom that one or even two teachers suffice for all these extremely different arts.

Whether our public schools shall permit corporal punishment at all is a debatable question, but whether teachers in graded schools shall administer such punishment is not debatable. The true solution of the problem is the establishment of reform home schools and of "ungraded" classes, to which shall be sent all incorrigible pupils. The principals in charge of such schools or classes may require the right to administer corporal punishment. No teacher of an ordinary class ever needs such a right, or ever should be degraded to such a duty.¹

A great peril of the teaching profession is physical overwork. The teachers of this country are characteristically underpaid, which means that they live in small rooms, have a routine diet not always of the best quality in good variety, that they have little recreation, social or physical, and that their holidays and vacations even are passed under the cloud of financial anxiety. This is a pitiable misfortune to the nation, which is too blind to see it. Ancient Egypt, which overvalued the teachers by making them priests, and in a special sense the sons of the gods, and which built for them palaces and gave them slaves, managed to survive five millenniums of years. It is a question whether modern America will survive five centuries. Rome, whose teachers were slaves, had scarcely as many centuries of her imperial greatness. England, which came to the forefront in 1588, has never properly valued teachers, who are the repository of culture, and England to-day is apparently on the wane. On the other hand, Germany, whose modern rise dates from the encouragement of education, not a century ago, has given to teachers an authority in the nation that promises well for the future.

¹ Many years ago, the State of New Jersey abolished corporal punishment absolutely, in all public and private schools. No State has better school discipline to-day than this leader in a nobly humanitarian movement.

As it is a safe principle for a school superintendent to transact for himself, without reference to the board of education, all matters that are within his authority or too trivial to call to their attention, so also it is a safe rule for a teacher to transact with parents and pupils all matters that are within his authority and that are too trivial to call to the attention of the principal or supervisor. That is a good teacher who refers only a few cases of discipline a year to the principal, and only a few questions with regard to other matters. Good teachers do refer some matters to principals, but they never refer many. In short, the competent teacher has the ability and the desire to manage most of the concerns of his pupils and of his class.

It may be needless, but it serves to round the completeness of this chapter, to say that a competent teacher is both punctual and regular in all school matters, such as daily attendance and keeping all appointments.

In a certain city, the two men who for a quarter of a century were famous for their success, the one in administering the school affairs, and the other in municipal affairs, were famous for their punctuality in keeping their engagements. So sure was a certain observer of the punctuality of one of them, that he remarked to a visitor that Mr. So-and-So would reach the council rooms at eight o'clock. As they arrived at the door at eight o'clock, exactly at the first stroke of the clock, Mr. So-and-So was seen to put his hand upon the door of the main entrance. Similarly, teachers who are unusually successful get the reputation among the children and with the parents of always being on duty. They know how to administer their time, and therefore to supervise the children and youth in their care.

There are times when a teacher ought not to attempt to perform his or her regular duties, but it is safe to say that ordinarily a person who is not sick enough to be in bed is well enough to do routine work. Moreover, if a person is over thirty years of age, the performance of

duties is in itself an assistance to the health, partly because it is a relief from the anxiety regarding omitted duties. On the other hand, and finally, in respect to young men and young women between the ages of twenty and twenty-six or eight, I must say, not only as a matter of professional experience, but of some knowledge of hygiene and medicine, derived from medical studies systematically pursued, that when the youthful person cannot spend a full year at twenty-one or twenty-two years of age, in the open country, without engaging in any work that will tax the brain, it is desirable for him or her while teaching to heed the cautions of fatigue.

It is a feature of American civilization that the boy or girl goes to school for ten or twelve years until the high school work is completed, and then to the normal school or college for several years more, so that the great period of secondary growth, from eighteen to twenty-five, when the frame broadens and the muscles strengthen, is passed under a severe mental strain. The result is seen in the attenuated frame and in the nervous condition of so many normal school and college graduates. It may be said that, almost as a rule, unless one takes a voluntary vacation for a year between the ages of twenty and twenty-six, or else has an unusually easy teaching position, before he is thirty-five years old, he will be compelled by nervous exhaustion either to give up the profession entirely or to omit work for at least two or three years.¹

¹ One of the unpleasant questions now frequently debated is whether the teacher is usually "overworked and underpaid." If overworked, the causes may be one or more of three: 1. The neglected right to the Sabbatical day and to the Sabbatical year of the Mosaic Code. One year in seven or the equivalent is none too frequent a rest for the growing child and youth. 2. Insufficient preparation for the task in hand. A competent person can do well and quickly what worries the incompetent into illness. 3. Badly ventilated or unventilated schoolhouses or overcrowded classes. This form of "overwork" is really poisoning. For the "underpayment," see Chapter XVI.

CHAPTER XII

THE NEW EDUCATION AND THE COURSE OF STUDY

IN the history of every progressive people there is a constant procession of the subjects of study.¹

We may class all of the studies of the so-called public school curriculum, from the kindergarten to the high school, under three heads; viz.:—

- I. The outgoing studies,
- II. The modern studies, and
- III. The incoming studies.

The studies in group I are those which no longer meet fully the conditions of the present time. Some schools thrust them out sooner than others. The studies brought together in group II are the characteristic studies of the age. They meet the prevailing modern conditions. The studies classed under group III are those which mark the signs of the times, and forerun the future. It might be interesting, and perhaps profitable, in a pedagogical treatise to discuss the philosophy of this matter. No doubt history does repeat itself, and that many of the incoming studies are those that at one time, in some previous civilization, were prevalent in some form or other.

Of the studies taught to-day in a modern city school system, we may make the following list, which will include practically all branches of importance:—

¹ In this book on school administration, this extremely important subject is outlined merely with reference to its administrative features.

1. English.
2. Latin.
3. Greek.
4. German.
5. French.
6. Spanish.
7. Possibly another Modern Language, *e.g.* Greek, Italian
8. Arithmetic.
9. Algebra.
10. Geometry : Plane, Solid, Analytic.
11. Trigonometry.
12. Other Higher Mathematics.
13. Nature Study.
14. Physiology.
15. Biology ; or Botany and Zoölogy.
16. Physics.
17. Chemistry.
18. Astronomy.
19. Geology.
20. Physical Geography.
21. Geography.
22. Commercial Geography.
23. Other Sciences.
24. History : United States.
25. History : English.
26. French History.
27. General History : Ancient, Mediæval, Modern.
28. Greek History.
29. Roman History.
30. Other History.
31. Civil Government.
32. Political Economy.
33. Commercial Law.
34. History of Commerce.
35. Other Political Sciences.
36. Manual Training ; Wood-working.
37. Iron-working ; Construction of Machinery.
38. Basketry.
39. Sewing and Dressmaking.

40. Weaving.
41. Other Industrial Arts.
42. Cooking.
43. Household Sanitation.
44. Care of the Sick.
45. Other subjects of Domestic Science.
46. Kindergartening, with its four subdivisions : (a) Geometric Instruction ; (b) Story-telling ; (c) Games ; (d) Busy Work and Instruction.
47. The School Arts : (a) Reading ; (b) Writing ; (c) Figuring.
48. Spelling.
49. Stenography or Phonography (Shorthand).
50. Typewriting.
51. Bookkeeping.
52. The Various Trades : (a) Carpentry ; (b) Other Trades.
53. Physical Training.
54. Gymnastic Work.
55. Inspection of Health.
56. Music : (a) Class ; (b) Individual ; (c) Sight Reading ; (d) Other Instruction.
57. Ethics.
58. Psychology.
59. Logic.
60. Drawing.
61. Current Events.
62. Art.

In very large school systems, or in systems operated under special conditions, other studies will be found in actual operation. In this list, long though it is, it has been found necessary to omit all distinction of grades in work. However, the reading of the child in the first primary grade, which is chiefly phonetic and word memorizing, is very different from the reading of the high school pupil. Obviously, the difference in methods is so great as practically to create different subjects. Such differences, however, I omit noting.

The outgoing subjects at any stage in the civilization of a people may be called decadent. This decadence may indeed be a misfortune to the deeper and essential life of the people.

To illustrate: Recently, ethical instruction based on the Bible may be considered as going out of the schools. The modern teacher gives less time than did the teachers of a former generation to exhortation and to Biblical or other religious instruction.

In the course of the last hundred years, Latin and Greek have been slowly moving out of the schools, greatly to their loss in cultural spirit and atmosphere. On the other hand, the modern languages may be classed among the incoming studies. This group of the subjects of the future includes all of the industrial, commercial, and scientific subjects. How to find place for the good new subjects that are pushing their way in the schools, while retaining the good old subjects now firmly planted in the curriculum, is a difficult problem for the school administrator as well as the educational philosopher.

For purposes of record, it may be said that in the first decade of the present century the following are the strictly standard and practically universal subjects of the school curriculum:—

1. English, language and literature.
2. Latin, language and literature.
3. German, language and literature.
4. History, United States, English, general, and ancient.
5. Arithmetic, algebra, and geometry.
6. Reading, writing, and spelling.

It is easy to recognize the incoming subjects, whose entrance is almost invariably accompanied by the incoming of a supervisor or specialist. Almost the only reason why any supervisor of a specialty is required in the Ameri-

can public school to-day is that most teachers prepared a decade or two decades ago were not given instruction in the subjects represented by the specialist.

It is interesting to note the presence of the music supervisor in the schools. He does not represent an incoming subject, but one that very few persons can teach well. Indeed, many good teachers of all other common school subjects, cannot teach music at all.

In respect to the new education, the great principle for the school superintendent and for the board of education is to maintain the good while making place for the better and removing the worst. A feature of singular importance in connection with the new education is that many old studies are undergoing such change in their methods as practically to amount to new studies.

To illustrate: The subject of chemistry is now a very different study from the former chemistry, taught from a text-book without a laboratory. Modern chemistry is learned by individual work in the laboratories. Similarly, the modern mathematical course for elementary schools is a very different course from the old course in arithmetic.

The great advantage of school systems that are able to select teachers from a variety of normal schools, and that have a large percentage of young teachers, is that the school authorities may select teachers educated under modern conditions and in modern courses and methods. The value of old and experienced teachers is well known. That of young and inexperienced teachers is not so well known. It consists largely in the fact that they represent the principles of the new education.¹

It is often very difficult to secure the installation of new courses of study in established systems. There is still the old animal idea of inherited instinct, by which a child tends, so the ignorant think, to be just as good, to do just as much,

¹ See Appendix IX for a summary of a modern course of study with assignments of time to be apportioned to each subject in each grade.

and to do it as well, as his father and mother, just as a dog inherits the instincts of his kind. This would be true if men were animals only, but we are not, and we do not inherit the ideas of the human mind. Consequently, the human character has the power to progress; unfortunately also it has the power of retrogression. Degeneration is easier than regeneration. The man who says, "My education was good enough for me, and I do not intend my son to have any better," nine times out of ten means (whether he knows the fact or not) that his son is to have a worse education than he had. Even if equal in extent, the education of the son would prove unequal to the increasing difficulties of a progressive civilization.

So large is the influx to-day of foreigners in American society that we are in constant danger of setting up sex and class castes. The German has an invincible idea that a girl needs only the education of a housewife, while the English immigrant, coming as he does from the middle class, is entirely satisfied with the elementary school education for his sons and daughters. Now modern education is an effort to bring into the life of all children and youth the treasures of the wisdom of the ages; it is an effort to elevate. In a democracy, the assumption on the part of the teacher that he has the power to elevate children above their parents gives offense. However, the native American of native ancestry and the intelligent foreigner who emigrated from the Old World for the purpose of securing the opportunities of the New, realize that the school stands for the improvement of children beyond their parents.

The time was in American education when geography was being introduced in public schools. It is a matter of tradition in the State of Massachusetts, that, when the subject was first proposed, it was violently resisted by the

members of some boards of education, and by other unenlightened citizens, on the ground that the child did not need to know what was going on upon the other side of the world. The result was that in a considerable number of communities, the school principals (there were no school superintendents then), who recommended the introduction of geography into the curriculum, in many cases lost their positions because they were too progressive.

With the general principle that a child should learn at school what he needs to know, there can be no quarrel. Further than that, the general principle that we should not make too rapid progress in education is also sound. As a political fact, the school system that progresses too fast is in danger of getting so far ahead of the people that a reaction may set in.

At the present time, owing to the fact that we have become a nation of literates, those studies that involve reading are supposed to be the most important subjects, and the exercises that involve the use of the hands are supposed to be retrogressive and not necessary for the children.

We have carried our teaching of reading to such an extent that men and women at home are wasting their time reading newspapers and worthless books, when they might better be spending their time as do the people on the same economic plane in the Old World, namely, in making articles of usefulness in the household. To be particular, there are a great many poor working-men who read newspapers all the evening when they might better be making household furniture.

The great requirement of the new education, which is substantially a universal education, and by which the school becomes a factory of industrial skill, and of domestic, as well as of literary, proficiency, is that it tends to develop a

community of people whose human nature is well rounded out. We do not wish in this country a population composed wholly of commercial clerks or of manual laborers. What we need is an infinite variety of people ; one to do one thing, another to do another thing, and still another to do something entirely different from these. There is now altogether too much competition for people to do the same kind of work.¹

Were this text designed to present completely the educational aspects of our public schools, I should enlarge greatly upon this subject. It is scarcely less important than that of the salaries paid to teachers, which I recognize as the most important question of modern education. The general fact is that at the present time the fashion in the schools is to carry out too narrow, too uniform a curriculum. It needs to be broadened and enriched. But it does not need to be increased in the case of any individual child. What we particularly need in the development of the new education in the school are a recognition of the value of elective studies and a new unification of subjects. It may be that a few studies, such as English and arithmetic, should be pursued by every child for five or six years, but human nature is born too various to be taught properly by any one fixed routine.

We shall some day recover from the condition in which the sole object of education seems to be the sharpening of the mind. In fact, we are likely to swing to the opposite extreme, and to make the sole object of education the development of a sound body. One who knows the human body as it is ideally can but regret the sore neglect of physical development in free common schools. We may well believe that, with a proper series of studies

¹ See my article, " Higher Education of Boys," *Education*, 1903.

and of exercises in the schools, our youth of sixteen, eighteen, and twenty years of age would be twice as strong and feel more generally well in health than now. The human body seems to be stunted by the confined posture necessarily adopted year after year in the schoolroom.

Physical culture and manual training are the emancipation of the child from false conditions. The outdoor garden is an escape from a real child's prison, which, if it does not positively deform the body, does weaken it greatly. The child with the blanched face is an advertisement of the fact that during the sunny hours of the school day he is kept indoors, when by right of Nature he belongs out of doors. His weak hands are an advertisement that he is using the pencil when he should be using tools. The shrinking timidity of the school child, a frequent characteristic of girls in these times, is due to the fact that the child who should be doing physical work under good conditions is being stimulated to mental work all of the time.

The great need of the new education is a return of interest in the home with its old household manufactures. In a modern town or city home, the child has little or nothing to do. In fact, he cannot do anything very important, for he must necessarily go to school most of the day. Outdoors often he can do nothing at all, for the typical home at the present time has no considerable yard about it. The average child has no useful domestic animals, such as the horse, the cow, the sheep, with which to play and to work, no garden in which to dig, no wood and no wool out of which to construct things useful for the family.

As a general principle, then, it may be said of the movement for the new education that it is a movement to give children and youth their rights, and to realize for the nation the physical and mental possibilities of its people.

CHAPTER XIII

THE EDUCATIONAL POLICY OF THE COMMUNITY

EVERY neighborhood has its characteristic physical appearance and likewise its characteristic spiritual atmosphere. Perhaps no factors in life are more important than the local "climates," physical, personal, and social. Often one who has lived in a certain house upon a certain street, and then moves to another house upon another street, even though it be the same neighborhood, finds many of the aspects of life that are closest to one's personal happiness so greatly changed that one feels as though in a different world. Let a man live in a town upon a fine street in a good neighborhood, and then go to another town essentially like the first, and there live upon a less attractive street and in a worse house, and his views of the two towns will be very different. The man who lives in a big house, facing south or east, has a very different view of life from the man who lives in a little house facing north or west. The school superintendent who failed to give satisfaction in his office when drawing a salary of fourteen hundred dollars rightly objected to being compared with his successor who was paid three thousand dollars.¹ They lived in different "climates."

The larger the city, the more does it differ from every other city of similar size. The larger it is, the more important is the question of the new superintendent or high

¹ The physician who attended this victim of public parsimony in his resultant nervous prostration said that the board had mistaken the schools for poorhouses.

school principal, "Where is it best for me to live?" There are several elements to be considered; such as the especial healthfulness of location, the quality of the neighbors, the accessibility to the rooms used as offices,¹ the nearness to persons influential in school affairs, and the character of the particular public school of the district to which the children of one's family must go. One must remember that wherever the superintendent lives should be the center of the educational policy of the whole school community. He is the soul of its policy. The superintendent who finds his neighbors either apathetic upon all school matters or antagonistic to educational progress is in very great danger from the contagion of that moral miasma. He needs as neighbors a few men and women who are at heart with him in his desire for a better future, and he must avoid too close proximity to many opponents of high taxes for schools. He needs the moral support of those who can discriminate between the greater and the lesser good as well as between the bad and the good, and who have the courage to go forward with their intelligence as their guide.

There are several reasons for this caution. The mere presence of a school reformer arouses and angers the opponents of school improvement. Again, it is wearing to the nerves of the strongest men constantly to do battle for a cause with old "familiar" as opponents. Moreover, such battling is waste of time. It is easier to make ten new friends than to convert one old foe. Lastly, the brightest men occasionally fall into errors, especially in conversation. These errors are not important with school friends, but

¹ In small communities it is not well to live too near the center of things unless desirous to have all one's evenings occupied by callers upon public business. To go out a short distance from too convenient electric lines is often the part of wisdom.

they may be so magnified as to be perilous when repeated by school opponents.

A certain school superintendent had as a next-door neighbor a constant enemy of public schools. Trying to convert him, the enthusiast made matters worse. Year after year this opponent blocked his measures for school betterment. Finally the superintendent moved a few blocks away; two years thereafter the former neighbor failed to note the coming of the season of school controversy, when the annual appropriations were made, and the superintendent won in his measures. The opponent met him later and confessed that "out of sight" meant "out of mind." There was never any more opposition in that quarter.

An instance of this was when a school superintendent said to a neighbor, "The high school seems to be falling off in numbers," meaning that in the spring the attendance was less than in the fall. The neighbor, who was a councilman and "in politics," reported that the "superintendent had confessed that the high school was a failure, children were dropping out, and no interest was being taken."

With these general comments upon the superintendent, who should be the prime mover in all educational public opinion, we may pass to an analysis of the educational situation in the community from his point of view. He sees that the community, as a whole, has, and always has had, a school policy. He sees the manifestations of this in the school buildings, in the current expenses, and in the breadth and quality of the school work. He hears it in the words of "the man on the street." He hears the "echo," that is, what the citizens generally say of the children's work, the teachers' skill, and the board of education's plans and activities. In the local newspapers he reads expressions of the school policy of the community. Within a year or two after his arrival in the community, he knows its general sentiment in all school matters, and he ought also to know the sentiments and the relative strength of its various factions. He should know what kind of

support he can count upon from the various cultural institutions, such as the churches and the literary societies. More important still, he should get his bearings in relation to his problem, which is that of developing a still stronger educational sentiment. These obligations rest upon him because he is the man chosen to look farther ahead into the future than any one else, in the interests of the cultural progress of the community. Protected as he is from the assaults of politics, prejudice, and ignorance, by the intervention of the board members, who, themselves elected directly by the people, appoint him to lead the cause of progress, the superintendent has no moral right to throw back upon individual members of the board the onus of any educational measure. Yet for want of observing this simple and obvious principle, many a really good man in this high educational office has finally lost his own position by sacrificing one after another of his best supporters. The opponents of better schools rally their forces against these school enthusiasts and try to defeat them at the polls. The principle that the superintendent should follow may be stated fully in this form: To assume all the responsibility that the board is willing to surrender or can be persuaded to surrender. The converse of the principle is that it is unwise for any of the board members, or for the board as a whole, to accept any responsibility and to support any educational measure or policy before the general public that, with decent regard for truth, they can throw upon the superintendent. Many and many a young lay educational enthusiast has gone down in the mêlée of American politics for want of this wisdom; and many a young professional educator has completely failed to assume this part of his function, and, therefore, has failed to succeed.

In a certain city, a high-minded board member objected to the superintendent's interesting himself, by assuming responsibility for the board member's radical advocacy of higher salaries for teachers. The superintendent saved every other school enthusiast by judicious advice, but could not save this man, because he published in an interview this statement: "I would have advocated this measure even if the superintendent had opposed it."

The pillar of the educational policy of the community is the school superintendent, whose business it is to uphold the board of education. Obviously, no weakling belongs in such an office. And that board conspicuously fails to understand human nature, which supposes that with years a man always gains moral strength. Often with years comes excessive caution, the outcome of timidity acquired from painful experience.

We may divide all communities into three groups:—

First, those which desire to have schools better than any in neighboring towns and cities. Such communities desire the leadership, and have pride in presenting the ideal in school affairs for the entire locality.

Second, the communities that desire to have schools equal to the best. These communities wish to avoid the criticism of being poorer in educational advantages than the best of their neighbors, but for any one of various reasons are willing to content themselves with an imitative development of their schools.

Third, the communities that desire to have schools as good as the average of their neighbors. These communities usually have schools considerably worse than the average and often fall into the contempt of their localities, for all people usually fall a little short of their ideals.

The school superintendent who comes into a community must inform himself immediately to which class this particular body of people belongs. If his city does not belong to the first class, it will of course be his ambition to bring his community to the ideal of that class.

The superintendent gets his board members as the gift of politics. In building up a strong educational policy in the community, the superintendent has a twofold task in

relation to the board. He must do what he can, quietly and in sound ethics, to lead the people to elect, or the mayor to appoint, the very best men to the boards;¹ and he must take whatever board he actually has and must try to make the best of it, for the advancement of the schools. Once in a great while, the superintendent will find on his hands a board eager to push educational matters. It is perilous to go too fast, though it is sound humanity to go as fast in the lead as the public can follow. The worst possible fortune of a school system is to get so far ahead of the people as to be lost by them. A balloon is not a safe model for the educational structure.

The new and progressive superintendent in a community with poor schools is at once confronted with a very serious dilemma. It is almost certain that the community thinks that its schools are as good as those of neighboring communities. The educator does not care whether this is or is not true. He knows that the schools are not as good as they ought to be. Shall he try to revolutionize them at once, or shall he try gradually to bring them to higher and better conditions? If he attempts revolution, he is in immediate danger of total failure in his plans, and possibly of being forced to resign. A bad defeat will lower his prestige. On the other hand, if he contents himself with trivial changes, the danger confronts him of being charged thereafter of having, by acquiescence for a time, indorsed the very conditions to which he is, in reality, opposed. He who proceeds to advocate reforms is in peril of being out of a position, while he who does not advocate them must face the certainties of being able but very slowly to accomplish reforms and to secure progress, and, in the meantime, of losing all opportunity to make a reputation that will be

¹ In Chapter II is discussed fully this matter of the qualities of a good board member.

useful to him in the future in increases of salary and in improvement of tenure, either when remaining in the same community or when securing positions elsewhere. Only the progressive educator has a progressive salary. To be content with one's schools is necessarily to be content with one's income from his service. Unfortunately, the converse is not always true.

The question as to which horn of this dilemma to seize is one that, like most other practical questions of life, involves problems of relation. In a small community of people of intelligence, the superintendent who knows his own mind clearly and has strong will power and equally strong powers of persuasion is entirely safe in advocating important reforms. On the other hand, the superintendent who has secured his election with difficulty, and who with a large city to understand sees in that city no strong and progressive cultural element, cannot safely advocate at once many important reforms. Most communities do not answer either description, but fall between these extremes, and not many school superintendents are very clear in their minds as to what should immediately be done and how to do it successfully.

Eliminating the elements of the personality and powers of the superintendent, and also of the size of the city, we may profitably analyze the elements of the problem that are afforded by the cultural quality of the community. The forces in American municipalities that make for intelligence and morality may be classified along several lines that intersect one another. In modern American life we need to consider ten social institutions.¹ The Family includes a large majority, yet in hotels and boarding and lodging houses are many individuals that are isolated units in respect to family relations. Millions of persons know

¹ See page 1, *supra*.

nothing of Property. Millions have no Church ideas or relations. Of these social institutions, the State is the only one that is all-inclusive. The School obviously interests only a small proportion of the community. Occupation includes practically all men, though but few women, and almost no children under sixteen years of age. Culture claims comparatively few; and Charity even less. Perhaps a million men and women struggle in Business. Our military citizens are few indeed, so that outside of the District of Columbia the exponents of the age-old institution of War are almost unknown.

Studying these divisions of the people of his community, the superintendent may look somewhat as follows upon them. The politicians will be interested in the schools chiefly as affording opportunities to strengthen their friends and themselves by one or all of the various forms of political abuse that are known as corruption. Very few politicians voluntarily work for the improvement of schools. Those who do work for school betterment are valuable. The officeholders are seldom well acquainted with school matters. The voters are chiefly workingmen, poor, well-to-do, or rich, who have neither time nor ability to inform themselves about school matters. As for the women and children (save in the States where women may vote either upon all questions or at least in school matters), all that they can do is to look on. The educator who looks for practical support from the clergy in his work of reform will generally be disappointed. Clergymen of any denomination who take much interest in the schools are likely to do almost or quite as much harm as good, owing to the resentment that they are apt to arouse. There are notable

exceptions, but the principle is too well understood to need discussion. What the superintendent can get the clergy to do that is really valuable, is occasionally to preach sermons on the importance of education, and similarly in conversation to interest people by discussions of the relation of education to intelligence and morality. Many of them will not give this support unless the suggestion comes from educators. The clergy, by speaking well of the educators in the schools, tend to increase the prestige of the educational profession; but for a clergyman, or for the clergy generally in a community, to advocate special educational measures is usually injurious to the cause of progress. As for the laity in the churches, they constitute by far the most important element in the city for the support of good schools. As a general proposition, men who are church members and active in church work can be relied upon to support all measures of educational progress. Similarly, the women who are influential in the institutional work of the churches are apt to be equally influential in the educational life of the community.

The non-church element is always disorganized. It contains some of the brightest people of the community, but it contains also most of those discontented souls who, having made a failure of life, resent success in others.

The efforts that have been made in the cities of the United States to interest the fathers of the school children in the schools have usually proven fruitless. The American father, whether a business manager or a clerk, a mechanic or manual laborer, is seldom deeply concerned for the educational welfare of his children. He is too busy to attend to these matters.¹ The American mothers likewise

¹ It is certainly one of the misfortunes of the modern American regime that American fathers can find no time to visit the schools of their children.

are usually too busy with home affairs to interest themselves as a class in even those matters lying outside of the home that are as near to the home interests as are the affairs of the schools.¹

The children and youth attending school and the older persons attending evening school and free public lectures offer a field in which the school superintendent can work with immediate good results in his efforts to influence the educational sentiment of the community.

As for Occupation, Culture, and Business, the divisions of the American people are at the present time so numerous that it is difficult to discuss briefly the relation of the persons engaged in the professional and industrial world to those who are charged with the educational interests of the community. Any analysis must necessarily be incomplete. Of the members of the learned professions, — the clergymen, the physicians, the lawyers, the journalists, and the teachers, — it is safe to say that the first believe in good schools, that is, in schools better than the community has already attained. As for the physicians, almost without exception, they are too much concerned with the interests of health to be deeply interested in matters of intelligence. The majority of physicians are bitter critics of schools. The very theory of school life is opposed to the cultivation of physical size and strength.² As a class, lawyers are engaged in legislation and in controversy. Their work is destructive and defensive rather than constructive. In general scholarship the legal profession is still inferior to

¹ Mothers' clubs are often efficient and helpful when guided by educators; and the number of mothers interested in the schools is ten to one of the fathers.

² That in most persons some intellectual activity is compatible with health is, of course, true; but in most persons, it is likewise true that the activity of the mind is at the expense of the greatest welfare of the body. The mind wears out the body. The theory of education is that study transmutes the physical life into mental power by draining off the surplus of physical vitality to the uses of the brain. Education often draws far too heavily upon the vital reserves.

the clergy, and the tendency is constantly toward a smaller and smaller proportion of scholarly lawyers.¹ Among the journalists, there will always be found a considerable proportion of widely read and thoughtful men, who can give the greatest assistance to the schools in their educational propaganda.²

The teachers themselves in the community, both the large number engaged in public schools and the relatively small number engaged in private schools, may be relied upon as enthusiasts in education. But at the present time a very large proportion of the teachers are women. It is an unfortunate feature of the female character that all matters are taken personally, and very few women are interested in raising the salaries or improving the tenure of any other woman. Since these two points are chief among the interests of the schools, it follows that the usefulness of women in influencing educational progress is not very great. Further, few of them are married, and many of them are imported into the community for but temporary sojourn; and as they have there but few friends, their opportunities to reach and to influence the adult voter are rather limited.³

With regard to all other learned professions it may be said that no one of them particularly conduces to the development of interest in elementary and secondary education.

We come now to the various purely economic occupations of men, which may be divided into three groups of employers, — the manufacturers, the merchants, and the farmers, — and into the innumerable classes of the wage-earners. The manufacturers are usually interested in the practical

¹ Time was when the lawyers often were fine classical scholars. There are now very few such instances among men who practice at the bar.

² Unfortunately, there are, even yet, in the journalistic profession many men who have not had high school and college educations. Among such persons there are often severe and unfriendly critics of the schools.

³ In States where women vote, the influence of the women teachers is often felt in elections, and that influence is usually for good.

lines of education that lead to knowledge and skill in the industrial arts and in the sciences. The merchants are more interested in the commercial subjects of the advanced grammar grades and of the high school or academy. Among American farmers, there are but few who care much about the cause of general education. Few farmers are interested in town or city school systems, for the very obvious reason that they do not spend their years in towns or cities, though with the increase of wealth of the American farmer, the farming class is gradually coming to reside in town during the winter.¹

The practical school superintendent will not spend very much time in thus analyzing the elements of the population in his community, but he will have in mind the general facts and the main points of the situation. He knows what proportion of his community is interested in these various lines of activity. To illustrate: One man finds that his municipality is chiefly commercial, with a small manufacturing and agricultural element, and with strong churches and other cultural associations. Another man finds that his community is largely manufacturing in population, with some agricultural workers in the outlying districts, and with but a small trading element. In such a community the churches are apt to be weak. The first community will have a complex social organization of lodges and councils of secret societies; while the second probably will have comparatively few such societies, but strong trades unions. In an industrial community, most of the manufacturers are noncompetitors, while many of the merchants are business rivals; therefore, it follows that in the manufacturing community the leading citizens will be inclined to work together in any public cause, while in a commercial community there will be much more friction among the leading people. The school superintendent must hold these facts in mind when he is disposed to drive forward in the direction of a particular object, such as the extension of high school work or the improvement of elementary teachers' salaries.

¹ The comment in the text is not meant to be prejudicial to farmers, for in fact those children who are brought up in the outdoor life of the farm, and who leave school at from fourteen to sixteen years of age, to spend the rest of their lives in active outdoor work, are the physical source of the vitality of the American people. See note as to education and health, page 293.

Taken still more broadly, American communities differ vastly in respect to the average per capita wealth of the citizens, and particularly in respect to the number of families that have great wealth. In some American communities of ten thousand people, the average amount of wealth liable to taxation for every child is less than five hundred dollars, while in at least one community the amount of wealth liable to taxation per child is fifteen thousand dollars. Obviously, the greater the wealth of the community, the easier it is for the school superintendent to elevate his community to the financial standard of a high rate of school expenditure per child, which in general means a high quality of education. The average cost of education annually per child differs greatly in American communities, being as low as ten dollars in some communities of considerable size, and as high as ninety dollars in other communities.¹ Similarly, the amount of wealth invested in educational facilities per capita for school children differs greatly from but a few dollars to more than a thousand. As a general proposition, it may be said that in good schools in American cities to-day, the annual cost per capita is at least forty dollars, while the permanent investment in buildings, furniture, equipment, and apparatus is at least two hundred and fifty dollars per child. Even on these bases, the current cost and the permanent investments are not nearly as high as they ought to be.

With reference to the various classes of people in the

¹ There has been frequent dispute as to the equitable basis for the estimate of the per capita cost of education, whether it should be annual enrollment, or average attendance, or actual days' attendance. No one of these bases is entirely satisfactory. Total enrollment means a very different matter in one community from what it means in another. In some communities, the population is transient, and there are many people who move in and out during the year, whose children, though they do not attend for an entire year, greatly swell the total number enrolled. On the other hand, days' attendance is unsatisfactory, because helping absentees on their return to school is a large part of the teacher's work.

community, the first principle of action on the part of the school superintendent, in his desire and effort to interest the whole body of people in the cause of education, is to reach prominent and influential individuals. This is necessarily a delicate matter. Sometimes, boards of education resent any personal activity on the part of the school superintendent in seeking to reach citizens outside of the board. However, until this is done, the school superintendent will have no fulcrum for his lever. *The hope for good schools does not rest in boards of education but in the educational policy of the general public.* Many and many a measure of reform has been forced through a board of education contrary to the judgment and in spite of the prejudices of the majority of the board. What a community wants, the board, in the long run, must surrender. Further, no school superintendent will be able, for any great length of time, to get much more for the schools than the real leaders of the community actually desire. Consequently, the man who has made a religion of humanity in his work as a school superintendent will take his earliest opportunity, and all later opportunities as far as possible, to educate the leaders in public affairs. Occasionally, he will find a man, otherwise not prominent, who will constitute himself a leader in the cause of education. Such an enthusiast is invaluable, since he has made no enemies in other causes. Within a year or two of his arrival, the competent school superintendent will be able to look upon the map of his community, and to say, "Here, there, is a man or woman upon whom I can rely for the support of this or that measure." Sometimes, the superintendent finds that a suggestion of a citizen to a board member is more efficacious than his own suggestion of that improvement. The board of education, like himself, is

governed by the echo of the community. One successful kindergarten leads to a dozen. A single high-salaried high school teacher creates an appetite for better teachers in all the schools.

Certain practical questions arise. Shall the school superintendent have his monthly report printed in the newspaper after being read by the board? Generally, the larger the community the more desirable is such publication. Shall a school superintendent ever outline a particular policy and publish its main points before presenting the case to a committee of the board or to the board as a whole? The more important the measure, the more necessary is it to throw the matter publicly upon the community before bringing it to the board, or at the very time of bringing it to the board. Often the board of education will be disposed immediately to discountenance a school improvement plan that they would have been compelled to consider carefully, if it had first been presented by the public press and by the educational leaders of the community. A school superintendent, however, must show the greatest discretion in his mode of presenting matters to the public or to groups of people outside of the board. Let no superintendent fail to remember that he is supported by the money of the public, of which the board is no more than a trustee. He is, indeed, the employee of the community rather than of the board. The superintendent will seldom get from the board more than the active education enthusiasts of the community are willing to ask and to work for. Not infrequently in American communities there have been established features of progress, such as manual training, for which the mind of the community had been inadequately prepared, and which soon were removed by the hostile majority of a new board. Consequently, it is well

to take the community into one's confidence, and to let the people know the reasons and the advantages of improvements, either proposed or in actual course of installation. Generally, it is not worth while for a school superintendent or for a body of supervising principals to accomplish any reforms in the schools at the cost of the least log-rolling or "politics" or pledges. Even the most innocent manipulations are apt to recoil upon their managers. The necessity of such manipulation shows that the community is not ripe for the plan. What is really needed is preparation of the public mind.

The question sometimes arises as to whether the school superintendent shall endeavor to convert the real enemies of schools: the taxpaying capitalist who, without children in the schools, thinks that he should be concerned only to keep the taxes down; the municipal politician who is interested in having plenty of funds in the particular department where he can make something honestly or dishonestly; the man of ignorance and prejudice who, without education, has made what he calls a "success in life." The time spent upon endeavor to reform and to reconstruct the hearts and minds of the opponents of the school system is usually time wasted. The very effort to influence such persons is commonly misconstrued and taken as a confession of weakness. Furthur than this, the facts and arguments presented are usually misunderstood, and are used later to the disadvantage of the schools. The best policy to pursue with regard to noisy opponents of school progress is to make war upon them in public and private, in order to defeat their measures and to reduce their influence. Any course of friendship with them is in peril of leading to "selling out" to them sooner or later. Any agreements made with them are apt to be considered

as pledges. In truth, the sooner the school superintendent in a community of any size appreciates the fact that he is engaged in a warfare, and that he is the champion of the children, of the youth, and of the ambitious parents, and that he is the custodian of the cause of culture, the sooner will he attain a dignified and respected position in the community, and the sooner will he be able to do something effective there in the sacred cause of popular intelligence.

The line of argument for the improvement of the schools in any American municipality is straight and clear. May each man of us pursue it manfully !

The first provision for compulsory attendance at school was adopted about the middle of the seventeenth century by the colonies of Massachusetts and Connecticut. The Act passed by the General Court of Connecticut contained provisions somewhat as follows : It alleged that the parents and masters, "through tender respect to their own cause and business, and not duly considering the good of their children and apprentices," neglected their duty to provide them with an education both literary and practical. The Act also attached a penalty for violation of the law for compulsory attendance, and authorized duly appointed officers to prosecute neglectful parents and masters.

The compulsory attendance laws in the most progressive States now provide for such attendance of all children between the ages of seven and fifteen, thus assuring them of an elementary education for a period of at least seven years. This is too short a time ; from an educational point of view, it would be decidedly better to require such attendance from the ages of eight to seventeen, inclusive. Without discussing here the reasons for the reaching over of education into the adolescent period and for beginning

the compulsory attendance period a year later, I desire to call attention to certain probable results from such a law.

1. There would be a considerably larger attendance in the schools, both public and private.

2. There would be State supervision of private schools as well as of public schools, to the end that the nation and the community might be assured that the children were receiving, in school, an education both thorough and broad.

3. The establishment of schools for defectives and incorrigibles, for most of the incorrigibles and habitual absentees are either defective in their special senses or general health, or deficient in their moral qualities. Such a school could not be maintained as an integral part of the public school system to the extent of having the same kind of teachers and the same kind of subjects. In fact, all such special schools should be schools in which the children are isolated from their ordinary surroundings.

4. Such compulsory attendance would necessitate in most municipalities a truant officer or a body of truant officers who should give their entire time and work to visiting homes and determining whether or not the children should be sent to the parental home schools.

5. A considerably increased budget for annual expenses would be required. A good home school for incorrigibles and habitual absentees cannot be maintained except at a considerable cost. A community of ten thousand people, with the ordinary proportion of factory and commercial element, in the year would probably have from fifteen to thirty boys in attendance, and might have from five to ten girls also, who should, of course, be in a separate school building. The home school or schools should have gardens, domestic animals, woods, fields, and workshops, as well as dormitories and recitation rooms. The cost annually

would scarcely be less than six thousand or eight thousand dollars.¹

6. An ordinary municipality of from ten to twenty-five thousand people would doubtless find it valuable to establish also in various parts of the city ungraded schools, in which children who are apparently incorrigible or decidedly inclined to be irregular in attendance could be placed for a time, to see whether or not they should be sent to the reform school.

In half a generation, that is, fifteen years, the cultural quality of a community may be transformed for the better or for the worse by the education of the youth in the schools. Given a poor school system to begin with, very little can be done in one year, but more can be done in two years, and still more in three years. It requires the entire school life of the child, from four or five years of age to eighteen or nineteen, to insure the permanence of the cultural improvement of the community. The school superintendent who succeeds in securing kindergartens in the school system, must wait nine years before the children who have had the kindergarten training can reach the high school, and at least thirteen or fourteen years before they become voting citizens. Consequently, the educator must appeal for permanence of reform, and at the same time he must make it clear that the people of the community are not to look for immediate results. The process of education is distinctly a process of "casting bread upon the waters," believing that it will return "after many days."² In that faith, education makes all its great gains.

¹ It is profitable to compare the per capita cost in such a reform school with that of criminals in penitentiaries. Most criminals are young. It costs but a tenth as much to educate as to reform. Depravity is unnatural a turning away from the law in our souls

² The argument for educational improvement has been presented in Chapters II and III, and is again presented in substance in Chapter XIV.

CHAPTER XIV

EDUCATION FOR SUPERVISION ¹

To persons who look upon life and society superficially, it may appear that a school superintendent or a school principal is not a ruler of men, but only of children. In truth, however, he is a ruler of men who guides them by his ideas and influences them by his sentiments. In historic fact, some of the men who in their day and generation have dictated to their fellows have held public office incommensurate with their power, and sometimes no public office at all. The emperors of Rome were not constituted as such, but they gathered to themselves power by a combination of apparently ordinary offices.

The competent superintendent aims to fit himself so well for his duties that he can succeed anywhere, in a most backward as well as in a most progressive community, in elevating and improving the condition of the schools. He must be a student of supervision and also possess a wide range of knowledge of men and things, and considerable practical experience in affairs in the largest sense. His has become a specialized profession for which a highly specialized training must be provided.

The real ruler of men in a republic is he who is consulted upon many public matters. It is immaterial whether he has actual governmental power. Most of the great things of this world are necessarily carried out by the

¹ This chapter is based upon an address given before the National Education Association, in Detroit in 1901.

servants and clerks. The very fact that the school superintendent is engaged in supervising a large body of men, women, and children, and in carrying out the will of the board of education, shows that supervision and administration constitute a form of control of society. There are two kinds of power in this world. One kind is political and economic; the other is intellectual and moral. The power of the superintendent is partly the former but largely the latter. He has, therefore, a wonderful opportunity. While his field in the community is smaller than that of the mayor, the power of a competent man in a superintendency is greater than that of the holder of any other American public office. He suggests and influences legislation. He carries on the executive work, and he is judge and jury in many judicial matters. In charge of the schools, he actually rules at least twenty per cent of the community. It is true that the subjects of his rule are mostly children, but it is also true that he who rules the children to a great extent rules the parents. I am using the word "rule" in its American sense, in which it carries no color of despotism, but means management, direction, and service.¹

It is the business of the board of education to remove the tyrant, and to cut out from the school system every manifestation of growing tyranny. Very often the superintendent's tyranny is necessitated by the condition of school affairs, as, for example, when it is not possible to secure a board meeting for several months in succession, owing to factionalism among board members.²

Partly because school superintendents are beginning to realize their power, there is growing up a new profession of

¹ There are, no doubt, instances still too common in which the school superintendent rules in the old sense of feudal tyranny.

² The remedy for this sort of evil has been suggested in the chapter, "The Board of Education."

supervision. The schools are becoming a democratic hierarchy, composed of several classes, — the supervisors, the principals, the teachers, the older and the younger children. There is an equality of all, but this is equality of relation one to another in opportunity. There is no equality in knowledge and power. Democracy greatly needs this new profession of supervision. The very appearance of such a profession shows that civilization is rising and developing. The whole body of teachers is becoming differentiated into experts of various kinds: the expert administrator, the expert supervisor, the expert teacher of a subject, the expert teacher of a grade. This differentiation into various classes and kinds of teachers is accompanied by an integration of each class and of each kind of teacher into a separate body. It is commonly said that there are five hundred thousand teachers in the United States. Within a generation, while we shall continue to have teachers as a body, as we have business men as a body, we shall also, as in the case of business men, divide them up according to their occupation, into at least five groups, and the members of these five groups will work together as individuals and as separate groups by themselves. The high school teachers will form one body, superintendents and principals another, college professors another, grammar school teachers another, primary teachers still another, and there may be a separate body of kindergartners. This differentiation is desirable and will correspond with the differentiation of the medical profession into physicians, surgeons, and specialists, together with their invaluable assistants, the nurses. These various bodies of experts will be developed largely by an enthusiastic pursuit of certain studies — sociology, economics, history,¹

¹ In my use of the term "history" I mean something much more than a mere chronological series of facts. I mean the life and the motives behind the facts. This may be called the

physiology, child psychology, law, and literature, as well as of such special studies as pedagogy and history of education. The great peril of the educational profession to-day, as in all times past, is lack of opportunity for self-alienation. The teacher goes through grammar school, high school, and college, and then issues forth into the world intending to express the very things that have been recently impressed upon his mind and character. This means that he is little more than a conduit of culture. He has no opportunity to go out into the world, to examine, and to experience, the results of culture. He does not see "real life." There is no line of demarcation between his dreams and his realities. He is apt to live in an artificial world of ideals and generalizations. In view of this peril, that man is fortunate who, in preparing for the work of administration and supervision in schools, has been compelled to earn his own living by economic effort. Once in the special work of administration, while he needs to keep before him the vision of the ideal school, and to maintain relations with teachers' associations, he particularly needs daily contact with the forces of practical business. It is true that the administrator of schools cannot know too much. In a sense, it is true that he never knows enough. Especially is he apt to be deficient, in the very nature of his occupation, in handling all matters which we generally class in the phrase, "practical affairs of common sense."

Preparation for this profession, which requires so much knowledge and skill and common sense, is a much more

philosophy of history, the doctrines of the rise and fall of nations, and analyses of the causes of growth and decay. I mean history as written by such masters as Gibbons, Guizot, Lecky, Motley, Parkman, and Fiske, in their finest passages. History, in this sense, is the process by which the ideals (*τὰ ὄντα*) of Plato realize themselves, generation after generation, in the course of events by the building of institutions. It is the record of events that have affected the social welfare; and events are the collisions of the selfish or social interests (purposes, desires, ideas) of mankind.

serious matter than it is apt to be considered by those who have not actually undertaken the great work. The work itself is decidedly underestimated both in its quality and in its quantity. Because the superintendent is a public servant, the public is generally apt to belittle his position, not comprehending the real nature of the service that he ought to render. In truth, the American people are too much interested in the affairs of wealth and property and business, which shows that we are as yet only in the earlier stages of our civilization, being not sufficiently anxious about the affairs of the mind and soul which create property and make living itself worth while.

A scholar wrote the Great Charter eight hundred years ago. A scholar wrote the Declaration of Independence. A scholar wrote the final draft of the Constitution of the United States. Our best men have never been too good for the duties of government. Certainly none has ever been too good and too well trained for the service of humanity through the education of the young.

Schools are the agencies for the transmission of culture in its real sense, as the courts are the agencies for the transmission of the lesser inheritances, the lands, the goods, and the rights of the earth. In all educational systems, or in that concatenated order which passes for a system, we have singularly neglected the preparation of our youth for the highest duties, such as superintendencies, mayoralties, governorships, and other functions and offices of government. We have not gone far enough in our education of leaders. In view of this criticism (whose justice must be obvious to any student of municipal and national affairs in America), it is profitable to inquire, "What is the course and what is the goal of education?"

First, we must acquire property in our own bodies, learn

our own hands and feet, then add skill in tools, in games, and in athletics. Manual training has now come in, with its practice in the domestic and industrial arts; and physical culture is at last recognized once more. We know that every human creature is worth most to himself and to us when he completely possesses himself. Next, we must acquire the facts of the senses, that is, world-knowledge; and we have Nature study and science laboratories, social investigations, history, and geography. These furnish the elements of preparation for self-support. Hitherto, this world-knowledge has been for most men fragmentary and often incorrect. Yet humanity has blundered forward, thinking that the earth is flat, and that priests own God, and that kings are by the grace of God, that history is a series of accidents, and that whatever is, is fate.

After getting this objective knowledge of the real world, the individual turns to himself, to his own soul and mind. Therefore, the wise teach others literature, philosophy, and religion, which reveal the soul of humanity. The beginning of this state is self-consciousness, and its end is self-control. Beyond this, few ever advance. "Know thyself" was almost the highest point reached by the philosophy of the Greeks. Yet there are two higher stages to which we may attain if we do not crystallize in character and mind at earlier stages. Beyond self-knowledge is self-direction among the forces and events and facts of Nature and of the human life. This self-direction is possible only to men of objective social knowledge. The earlier objectivity that leads to observational science and to industry is not enough. This later objectivity is not one of the senses so much as of the will, carrying one beyond truthfulness of vision to truthfulness of action, to self-revelation and self-direction in the world. Of every hero who has stood for

his mission, even of every man who has risen in the world, these words of Arnold are true : —

“ He within
Took measure of his soul and knew its strength,
And by that silent knowledge day by day
Was calm'd, ennobled, comforted, sustained.”

The philosopher Rosenkranz, in his volume, “The Science of Education,” which is deservedly read by almost every educational apprentice in the United States and Germany, was unable to carry his argument further than this, the climax of individualism. The appeals by teachers to the desire of their disciples for property both as wealth and as income, the exhortations to self-knowledge for one's own sake and to self-control so as to win and to hold the respect of others, and the incitements to acquire power so as to make a place by one's own will for one's self in the world, are familiar to us all, both as students and as teachers. These appeals are absolutely necessary; they are as milk to babes and as meat to strong men. “Seize your opportunities” is the maxim of those whose philosophy ends with self-control. “Make your opportunities” is for those who are capable of self-direction. Some of the greatest names of history illustrate this exalted stage of culture; of these Napoleon is the most striking, the most startling, example. Higher than self-direction and social knowledge, but possible only to those who have conquered the forces of social habit and of social thought, is the stage whereon a man represents in his mind and will the best thoughts and purposes of humanity and, as such a representative, exercises social control. For this stage, our education, our very institutions, self-governing though we Americans may be, afford no adequate preparation. Social control is a state of the mind, completely absorbed

in the affairs of society for its own sake, absorbed though never equally alive in any earlier state.

Still higher than that education which enables a man to exercise social control with profit to society is the final goal of character, which is complete self-understanding and world-understanding without ambitions of any kind. This involves surrender to the great human moving forces. This was the life that Buddha is said to have lived. It is the life led by the men who have rendered the greatest service and have left the greatest influences in human history. This is not mere martyrdom, though it often involves martyrdom. It is not self-sacrifice, though it often involves self-sacrifice. It is not the surrender of personal ambitions, though it often involves such surrender. It is not reconciliation with the world, for it is often opposition, lifelong and strenuous. It is the faith that what the soul believes ought to be is to be. It is determination that what ought to be must be. It is hardening to the task of bringing what ought to be into being by the complete utilization of all one's powers.¹ Only men strong and wise and good can achieve this highest stage of human development, which was set ideally before men in the person and life of Jesus. Thereby, he became the Saviour of mankind, not so much by his death as by his warfare. In a greater or less degree, every man who has rendered important service to mankind has lived this life of self-understanding and world-understanding and of unfailing energy. The fire has burned brilliantly within him, and often has given out, not only light, but also heat.

¹ In the final analysis, all great success depends upon three qualities: judgment, patience, and courage. Judgment depends upon knowledge and reason; patience, upon sympathy and strength; but courage is a primal quality. When not native, occasionally it is born in the adolescent regeneration.

Such a man is certain to be misunderstood, for the plain reason that only his equals can understand him, while he has but few equals. When he is dead, he is canonized. His record is seen in the monuments that he has left in ideas, institutions, buildings, books, regenerated souls made more human because larger and kinder and stronger. Such men have not all been saints, but they have all been heroes.

The question at once arises as to whether an educational system can be so constructed as to assist Nature in producing such men. Clearly, the system cannot be so constructed until the plan is proposed. We must see a need before we inquire how to meet it. What, then, is the need?

Our democracy has made singular choices of its rulers and servants. We employ some who cannot see even the facts of objective experience; we employ others who are incapable of self-support; and we employ many who have no self-reliance, but who, knowing nothing securely of themselves, wait to see what others will do or say. In fact, our citizenship is afraid of the selfishness of educated intelligence. To develop self-control, to raise men out of subordination to superiors, to achieve democracy, — education, elementary, secondary, and collegiate, can do much by employing the original self-activity of children and youth, and can do nothing otherwise. Unless education does produce self-reliance, the youth are better out in the struggles and temptations of life than at school or college.

The truthful observer, clear-eyed, self-reliant, and he alone, can become the righteous servant-ruler in Church and State, in business and school and society. Many such self-understanding men may be called, but even of these only a few will be chosen for continued service. Upon these depends the further progress of a great and difficult civilization.

But why is it all cannot become agents of social control in a nation of free equals? We have done away with kings in the State, and with priests in the Church, and with patriarchs in the Family. We are doing away with men as masters in Business, and may some day dispense with our lords of the land. We have opened the School to all. Why do not all ascend to the very highest stages of culture, to be their own kings and priests, employers, teachers? If the way up the Parnassus of the Muses is steep, that to the Olympus of the gods is sheer. It is, indeed, difficult to master the great classics and the fine arts; but it is much more difficult to master the sciences of humanity and the arts of the control of men.

Sometimes, the early environment is so barren that it affords no proper and adequate nourishment for the mind struggling to compass the objects of the world. Sometimes, and I doubt not that this is true in the case of at least forty per cent of the children of our race, the bodily apparatus is so defective, especially in the eyesight and external muscular accommodations of the eye, that the soul cannot find the real world or truly express itself in it.¹ Many others cannot progress in culture because they must stop by the way for the means of existence. Of these early economic unfortunates, here and there one will nevertheless win his way forward, upward, till he sits by merit in the councils of State. After the stage of self-control is reached, further progress in culture becomes much more difficult. Getting beyond self-knowledge to intelligent self-direction and then on to competent righteous social control is personal pioneering, for not only are there no teachers or books, save biographies seldom full

¹ The series of books of Dr. Gould of Philadelphia, entitled "Biographical Clinics," and dealing with the eye defects of certain famous literary folk, develop this subject fully and admirably.

of truth, but even the philosophy of modern education until very recently could point out no path.¹

Consider the spectacle of eighty millions of men, women, and children between our oceans, living in all these varied stages of culture, — so many in the earliest stages, so few in the last. Few are they who are capable of self-control; very few are they who are capable of self-direction; very, very few, a mere handful among so many, are fitted for social direction, only a fraction of those who are actually exercising social control. Consider, too, that Nature brings to birth very few geniuses able to rise without teaching to self-knowledge, self-control, self-direction, social direction toward the righteousness that is taught by the wisdom and goodness of a hundred centuries of the cumulative experience of unknown billions of men. Children of one Mother Earth, warmed and lighted by a single sun, joint heirs to the acquirements of countless generations of creatures, which taught our very nerve cells the right ways to do things, disciples of the common human thought, developing for ourselves practically nothing, we have a common obligation and a common opportunity.

And yet to develop our people — these eighty millions — our democracy spends for all kinds of education, private and public, of our immense national income, about one fifth as much as it spends for beverages to make us forget our troubles! And there are educators so unaccustomed to the ratios of large figures as to compliment our people, to cheer the hearts of niggardly politicians, and to put stumbling-blocks in the paths of the actual workers — the money-getters — in the cause of culture by exclaiming upon the liberality of a nation of eighty million people which, out of an income of one hundred billions a year,

¹ See Horne, "Philosophy of Education."

spends little more than three hundred millions on all forms of instruction, — a sum less than one half of what it spends on tobacco! — of which paltry three hundred millions by far the largest amount is spent upon the very rudimentary education of reading, writing, and arithmetic. As long as tobacco costs scholarly men about as much as do their books; as long as the single alcoholic drink, beer,¹ for the men alone costs all our people several times as much as meat for men, women, and children together; as long as all our universities cost less than our war ships; as long as we are willing to spend on conquests more than we are willing to spend to irrigate our arid West; as long as city slums endure; as long as men, women, and children who work must work anywhere under inhuman conditions; as long as the doors of opportunity are shut to so many, — so long we can regard neither our nation as a nation of well-educated people nor our schools as true exponents of human culture. We are better than any other people, but we are only at the beginnings of wisdom and righteousness and wealth. The primary school graduate may possibly become self-supporting, the grammar school graduate may have learned enough to become a good citizen, the high school graduate may have developed some power of individual service; but the college graduate ought to have some important and continuing contribution to make to his community and the wisdom to reconcile

¹ The *American Grocer* (the standard trade journal) estimated the total value, retail, of alcoholic liquors consumed by the American people in 1903 at \$1,450,000,000, and that of tea and coffee combined at \$300,000,000. Such figures, compared with the \$225,000,000 spent on American public education, and the \$275,000,000 spent upon all forms of American education, are very eloquent and rather disconcerting to those who talk much about the extravagance of Americans in education. All the great charitable legacies of 1903 in America amounted to but \$75,000,000, while the inheritance and income taxes of England, less than half as rich as the United States, were over \$250,000,000. We need to open our eyes wide to see these facts.

the conflicting interests of so many for the good of all. The lower schools are sending out boys and girls who know American history and are full of patriotism. But what of the college graduates?

In the last generation of men and women, much was heard about preparation for social service — “He that would be great among you, let him be the servant of all and the minister of all.” The converse is equally true. He that serves all rules all. The lesson of a longer experience is the need of preparation for social control. The old required course is a thing of the past. No mere change of studies, however, can effect an essential change in the fitness of the Bachelor of Arts for either social service or for social control. At best, he may issue into the world intending to reform it; at worst, he issues into it intending to master it; sometimes, he hopes to find opportunities for acquiring more knowledge or greater skill; generally, his intention is to enjoy, not the world, but himself in the world. We need none of these men. We do not need men bent only on accumulating knowledge of specialties. We do not want masters. We do not accept reformers. The history of the world is the miracle of constructive omniscience. We do not care for the æsthetic dilettanti, good only as critics. We object to eager executives seeking to convert the treasures of the world's labor-power into plunder for themselves. We need, and we use, self-reliant men who see the facts of Nature, who are interested in the welfare of humanity, who are ready both to serve and to rule, who are keen for action after thought. Especially in education we need men who, able to take care of themselves, when in office can do this so easily as to give their entire attention to taking care of the schools. By what studies may such men be prepared?

The fundamental science of the modern time is biology. The man destined for social control ought to understand the elements of natural life, that he may see humanity as it really is,—offspring or kindred of all the living creatures of this realm of one Father.¹

A knowledge of physiology is required far beyond the compass of a course of lectures or of an abridged textbook. Some of the most important questions any society of men and women have to solve arise solely from the general ignorance of fundamental human facts. The competent, if in authority, could easily dispose of them. The tenement houses in the slums; the children with neglected teeth and eyes and bodies; the widows bringing up orphans in the awful poverty of homes in which mothers worry all night after working outside of them all day; social evils and wrongs, resulting from customs quite contrary to physiological facts,—sorrows like these are remediable by competent and righteous men in business and politics.

Psychology has extremely important contributions for the man who is to exercise social control. The ability to locate individuals in such-and-such stages of culture has

¹ The modern biology is a very much larger matter than is indicated by the mechanical theories of a decade ago. It now concerns itself with the processes by which the soul takes possession of matter and converts it to its uses. One sees the finest evidences of the value of the new theories in "Whence and Whither of Man," by Tyler; "Psychology of Adolescence," by Hall; and "Mental Development," by Baldwin, both volumes, but especially the second on social and ethical interpretations. The purpose of this work is to discuss the administrative and supervisory aspects of education. I take space only to warn youthful readers not to be discouraged in their first studies in biology, and not to suppose that a mastery of the elements more than opens the door of the vestibule to its palace of truths:

It is impossible to summarize in a sentence or a paragraph some of the important educational conclusions to be derived from biology. I but suggest a single problem, which is that of the survival of the property sense which begins in animals and which characterizes most children at the age of twelve, and, when accompanied by an arrested mental development, produces the typical rich man. This property sense, which enabled the animals to survive through the winter and has made civilization possible, is purely a biological quality without psychological content, for it is always unconscious and therefore self-deceiving.

But see the defense of it in "Statistics and Economics," by Mayo-Smith, who held that but for rich men all wealth would be squandered. He considered them reservoirs of wealth.

countless uses. The study of human nature belongs to the rulers of men, for it not only makes them rulers, but it qualifies them to rule well. We can save society from becoming the prey of the able but evil, by producing the wise and good, who may overcome them.

Sociology discusses the history and the missions of the great social institutions of Family, Church, Occupation, Government, and School; the nature and the organization of human society; the combinations and collisions of men. Such a science serves for the youth about to be graduated from the courses of formal education as the final interpretation of this human life as it really is.

I assume that the college course is at least four years long. I know of no reason inherent in the nature of young men or in the constitution of society why a young man should come from college before he is twenty-two years of age. I hear no oracle of God commanding early specialization. I hear rather the divine words: "First the blade, then the ear; last the full corn in the ear."

Still another line of inquiry invites the consideration of those who mean to prepare young men generously for the supreme work of life; this line includes history, economics, political science, and law.

History is both the treasure-house of human facts and a means of finding the truth.

Economics is the arithmetic of the collegiate course. No man is competent to rule his fellows who does not understand the nature of capital, wages, rent, interest, profit, and taxes; just as no man is competent to buy or sell merchandise until he knows addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. By this standard, most men in office and in business exercising social control are incompetent. When this great nation at last seriously

undertakes the higher education, and seriously enters upon its mission of developing the human spirit, the college graduate will understand political economy.¹

Political science aims to disclose the history and principles of government. It is important that the ruler of men in a democracy should know the scope and intent of democracy itself, and its location of sovereignty in those only who can exercise it. Political science demonstrates why the strong rule, just as sociology demonstrates why the good ought to rule.

The man who is to exercise authority needs to know the elements of the law of his nation, his State, and his community, the rights and duties of citizens, the nature of property in lands and goods, the principles of contract, and the definitions and sanctions of crime. Especially should he know the nature of corporations, private, public, and quasi-public, for corporations are the greatest devices for progress, cultural, political, economic, yet sprung from human brains. Every American city is a corporation; and the advance from despotism to democracy in government is not greater than the advance from persons to corporations as the agencies of business.

The youth broadly prepared to rule should know the language and the literature of his race. He cannot know these too well. He must have an adequate command of thought-imagery. This is a requirement not only of content-knowledge, but also of skill in the arts of speech and print.

The man exercising social control should be able to see this American society as foreigners see it. Let him study a foreign language, master the great works of a foreign literature, and learn to think at his will in the terms of a

¹ See Chapter XVI.

foreign character. If possible, let him travel in Europe during at least one vacation.

No subject is to be studied for its discipline alone. In the wealth of subjects to-day, we ought to choose subjects for their content as well as for their logic.

This prepared servant of society ought to know for himself, not by books merely, nor by observation merely, but in personal experience, the life conditions, both economic and domestic, of the men and women who are working for humanity in some great industry, or in agriculture, or in commerce. He will find that most of the great working millionaires are caricatured by reporters and by casual acquaintances who are as incompetent to understand their motives and capacities as our children are to understand their teachers.

Every college graduate, especially one who is to be an educator, should be trained physically, manually, organically. He should know something about the fine arts and music and architecture, that our social life may be more attractive and the appearance of our business buildings and of our homes be more beautiful. We have long since learned that the culture of the classics and the discipline of the mathematics are insufficient for modern life.

Meanwhile, during these four years, the time of the very best training in any man's life, the youth who is being fitted for the authority, duty, and responsibility of social control should be learning self-government by practicing its principles in a self-governing student body and in self-governing student organizations. Any college that cannot maintain student government is in need of a new faculty, and its trustees sin against the light. If half-trained councils can oversee the self-government of great cities, full of ignorant people, some of whom are bad, a college faculty

can do as well by bodies of the finest² young men in the land. They may not be what the faculty wants; and again, the faculty may not be what the nation needs; but the young men are the best God has yet intrusted to this people.

The college belongs to the democracy of culture. Its student body is a republic of free equals. Its alumni are brothers. It ought to be the treasury of all that is "noble and of good report." Its teachers ought to be broad-minded workers for social betterment. By profession, every teacher exercises a degree of social control. In what spirit does he exercise it? None of us will expect that the deepest lessons interpreted from the printed pages of the masters can eventuate at once in the action or even in the character of the graduate or post graduate. But we not only can expect — we ought to know — that the young men and women sent into the world from these cities of the light will manifest, in moments of opportunity, some memory of the wisdom of the great and some emotion of the righteousness taught by them. The righteousness of a cultured society would transform the wealth and the labor power of the world into opportunities for intelligence, health, happiness, homes, and work worth doing for all. Every teacher fails utterly of his duty both to his pupils and to the mighty dead, who through pain, toil, and danger have won progress for humanity, when he fails to bring to his students the message of social obligation.

The scholar in politics? Yes, and only the scholar trained to displace all others. The scholar in business? Yes, and the scholar first of all.¹ But in politics and business such scholars need training and knowledge as much

¹ We need optimistic ideals with the most advanced views and the most progressive standards that any man can possibly think out. We need the compelling power of new truths as fast as they can be discovered to surprise the world into progress.

better than at present offered in the schools as modern life surpasses earlier conditions. Education ought no longer to lag behind the actual progress of the times. To-day Home and Church are visibly disintegrating. The School, by integration, grows more and more.

The making of men for social control is to-day the opportunity of the higher education.¹ To this we are developing. Past and present are unfolding the future. The college stands at the critical point. In this nation, its youth of talent are as the water of the river of life.

To State and Church comes the challenge of the poet, and the question of Lowell is the question² of the living Christ in history :—

“Have you founded your thrones and altars then
On the bodies and souls of living men,
And think ye that building shall endure
Which shelters the noble and crushes the poor?”

It may be that our historic mission is but to do better than any preceding people, and then, like all others, to fail, leaving lessons to instruct a new people in the valley of the Amazon or to revitalize an ancient people on the shores of the China Sea. And it may be that the American republic shall become the center of one self-governing world-nation, bounded by the circumpolar seas and the signs of the Zodiac, postponing the day of doom by the thousand years of a millennium of human righteousness.

¹ Nearly all our American legislators are lawyers. Time was when most English legislators were landlords. It is conceivable that the time may come when most legislators will be educators. Why not?

² It is not to be expected that many people in any generation of the near future will be able to dream dreams or to see visions of an age of opportunity for all, of freedom from handicaps by birth, of entire absence of all inherited or government-based privileges of property, or station, and of equal justice at law and before the bar of public opinion. But it is not only to be expected but required that some people in this age shall be the leaders of thought and therefore the leaders of the men of action, by whom the more desirable future, stage by stage, may be brought into being.

CHAPTER XV

GETTING THE OFFICE

GIVEN the young man who is theoretically well prepared for educational administration or supervision, and who has had the indispensable two or three years of actual classroom teaching, what course shall he pursue to get the desirable opportunity in which to demonstrate his fitness for social control? In the exigency of the times, a man who has just been graduated from a normal school or a college may be able to secure an independent principalship or superintendency and become the medium between the board of education and the community. Let him not suppose that he is prepared to exercise competently the authority of his position. Even the man who has had five or ten years of experience in classroom and principalship finds in his first superintendency that there is much to learn. Administration and supervision are each different matters from the other, and each is different from teaching. But it is not with these matters that it is proposed to deal in this chapter. The question here is simply how, by direct appeal to boards of education, to secure an election to a superintendency or supervising principalship.

For the high office of superintendent (and it is high, despite the fact that it is always so poorly paid) the selection is to be made by a body of laymen. To them, generally, the college or normal school diploma, irrespective of the institution that issued it, is a matter of form indicating qualifications neither comprehended nor appreciated.

The candidate will understand that the chairman of the instruction committee, unless by some accident he happens to be a college graduate, probably knows no other language than English, and no other history than that of the United States, and no science of any kind. The candidate and the man with the vote are living in two different worlds. How shall the applicant reach over into the business world and persuade the business man that he is the person to be selected out of all the number of candidates? When the season of the year is spring or summer, the candidate knows that he has scores, perhaps hundreds, of competitors for the position.

At the present time, in the United States, for a man of twenty-four or twenty-five years of age, in charge of a single school, \$1000 is an average salary the country through, while for the one who is to superintend half a dozen schools \$2000 is a fair salary. At the present time, for any educational position paying from \$1000 to \$2000, at the season of educational moving, there are invariably hundreds of applicants. It is a curious and instructive fact that for the \$4000 superintendencies usually not over a score will present themselves. But cases have been known where three hundred applications have been filed for positions paying \$1000. This does not mean that there are thousands of teachers out of work, but it does mean that practically every teacher is always ready to move into a position paying a little higher salary than that already received. The result is that the laymen get the impression that the salary which they have to offer is very high, and they desire to get the very best teacher to be secured for the money. How are the laymen to recognize this very best man?

We must leave out all those communities which do not

desire for their vacant superintendency the best available man, but have some particular qualification for which they are looking, such, for example, as being a member of a certain church or secret society; and we must consider only the position for which the competition is *bona fide* on its educational and personal merits. Let us deal with the matter in a simple, possibly a gossipy, manner.

The applicant, being from twenty-five to thirty years of age, is probably poor. Even in the so-called high salaried superintendencies, there are few men who own their own houses, or who have incomes apart from their salaries. To the applicant, even the railroad fare necessary for the personal interview is a matter of importance. He has heard of the place through a teachers' agent, or through the president or a professor of his college or through the principal or an instructor of his normal school. What course shall he pursue in order to win success?

There are three ways in which a candidate may influence the decision of the board of education. The first is by the quality of his correspondence. The second is by the quality of his conversation, which is even more important than his personal appearance. The third is by the quality of the references and of the direct testimonials that he can furnish to the board.

The man who hopes to get the position will probably pursue a plan somewhat as follows: He will immediately write to the proper authority, stating simply, but tactfully, why he is a candidate, and what his qualifications are. In this preliminary letter he will give most, or all, of the following facts: —

1. His last educational preparation, whether school or college.
2. His present or last educational experience in teaching.
3. His age.
4. Whether married or not.

5. When married, number of his children.¹
6. Height and weight.
7. His reasons for wishing to leave his present position and for preferring the position for which he is an applicant.
8. A list of his references.
9. A request for an interview.
10. Inclosure of two or three testimonials.

Notwithstanding the fact that laymen are to decide the question of his relative competency, the candidate will appreciate the fact that his literary style, his grammatical correctness, and his handwriting, together with the paper and ink used, will greatly influence both the preliminary consideration and the final decision. The ignorant man is usually more impressed by a fine letter handsomely written than is the learned man.

The next question that comes up is whether to write to more than one board member. There can certainly be no harm done by direct communication with three board members; namely, the chairman of the instruction committee, the clerk of the board, and the president of the board. No reasonable objection can be made to the candidate's writing a letter to every board member. It is true that this shows eagerness to secure the position, but as a general proposition, employers look with favor upon such enterprise, regarding it as a compliment to themselves. All letters, except those to the clerk of the board and to the chairman of the instruction committee, should be brief.

The third question that arises is whether or not to send a photograph. When a good photograph can be secured (some good-looking men take very poor photographs), it is usually desirable to send this picture to the chairman of the instruction committee or to the school visitor.

The fourth question is whether or not to wait for a reply before writing again, or before going to the community to make personal application. As a general rule, the candidate who waits for an invitation for an interview will be disappointed, for he is not likely to get it. Having written asking an interview, as stated above, let him go and see the person addressed before receiving permission to call. The public office itself imposes upon the holder of it the obligation to receive all callers upon the business of that office, and by his interview, the

¹ In a competition for a superintendency, married men with children have a distinct advantage, except in a few poor or parsimonious communities that realize that the salary is too small to support a wife and children decently.

candidate will at least have learned something of his chance of appointment and of the desirability of the position.

The next question that arises is whether or not to have friends write. When a man relies upon his friends to write letters to board members, he is likely to meet two disappointments.

A candidate who was desirous of getting a position in a certain community found that, though all of his friends promised to write for him, none of them did so, because they regarded the position as undesirable. In another case, the applicant who had had a score of fine letters written for him, by prominent educators, found that the recipient had read them, and was ready to express his interest in them, but to avoid the accumulation of such documents, had thrown them into the wastebasket. This gentleman expressed confidence in his own memory, and said that he would tell his fellow-members all about the contents of the letters. It is a curious fact that in this case, though the letters were thrown away, the applicant was selected. Where a reasonable chance for election exists, letters are undoubtedly of value.

The candidate now has his case before the board, has gone to the community, and has interviewed various members. Shall he see them all? As a general proposition, unless the board is very large, the man who sees all the board members will not only acquire much valuable experience, but will be in the way to secure the election. Not infrequently it happens that several members, ignored by most of the candidates, but visited by one, will band together and elect the man who paid them the compliment of calling on them. At any rate, the course will seldom injure the candidacy.

Sometimes, the applicant who has made a very favorable impression by his correspondence, references, and his personal conversation, fails to secure the election because of its postponement until a time when some other and later candidate has come into prominence. The question, therefore, arises as to whether the applicant shall leave the matter upon a first presentation of his case. Let no man suppose that he is to be elected or defeated until the votes are counted and the majority has been recorded. In other words, the man who has written letters to every board member, and sent references or testimonials to the

chairman of the instruction committee, should keep following the matter up until the election has been decided. This means that he should continue to write letters, or to make calls, short, pleasant, and judicious.

Another question that arises is whether or not he shall endeavor to bring any pressure upon the board, through his friends, or through citizens who may happen to know him. When the candidate knows or can secure introductions to influential citizens, it is wise for him to do so. A word from a neighbor often counts more with a board member than a hundred of good professional letters. At the same time, in all cases, the educational references must be good, else the pressure from citizens is unjustifiable and may prove, or should be, offensive.

Except in unusual circumstances, it is undesirable to allude to any membership in secret societies, or in the organization of a political party. The board members are looking for an educator, not a fraternizer. The matter of church relationship is somewhat different. The board does not require a Sunday-school superintendent or teacher, but few communities are likely to elect a man who is not identified with some one of the many denominations of Christianity.

The question sometimes arises in the applicant's mind as to whether the influence of book agents is helpful or harmful. The agents of the larger book houses are intelligent men, and most of them are honest and frank in their opinions of the qualifications of various candidates. The remarks of a book agent, when evidently not biased by the hope of future sales, are likely to be helpful.

Somewhat less difficult is the candidacy of the man who has already had experience in an independent principalship or superintendency, and who desires a change for the sake of bettering his condition. Commonly, the motive of men who desire change is economic. They feel the need of more money. How shall the man who is already in a school

position get a better position? There are only two ways of securing it. The one is by direct work, the other by obtaining the assistance of a teachers' agent. It is the business of the agent to know all the vacancies in school positions. Indeed, agents generally know about proposed changes, not all of which materialize. The man who has a position and desires a better one is confronted by three possible courses of action in respect to the position actually held. He may work for the new position quietly without informing his board, or he may speak confidentially with one or two members, or else he may resign, that he may work openly. When he works quietly, without informing any members of his board, he is likely to give great offense. Indeed, he may be discharged out of hand. When he first resigns, he is in the position of a man without assurance of work. This affects his own peace of mind, and may weaken his candidacy for another position. However, the man who has crossed the Rubicon, and has notified his school authorities that he is going to leave, in a certain sense, has the energy of despair and the boldness of necessity. Also, he can apply for several different positions without danger of giving any personal offense to his board. Finally, he can ask his friends in the community to help him to get another position. As a general principle, the man who has served long enough in a community to know that he does not care to stay longer does well definitely to publish the fact of his intended departure. This is the course of the man of courage and self-reliance, and one that may be pursued without loss of self-respect and without any personal misunderstanding. Such a man, in seeking a position elsewhere, may take with him letters of commendation from present or former board members, and also usually he can secure a resolution passed by

the board approving his work, at least in part. He can take with him also copies of such reports as he may have delivered to the board, samples of school work, courses of study, and such other school data as in his judgment will probably influence favorably school authorities elsewhere. Moreover, he can invite such authorities to visit his school or schools and thereby assure themselves of the quality of his work.

The third case is that of a man who has made a failure in his work and has been discharged, but desires to secure another school position. He has a heavy uphill road to travel, and he may never again be able to secure such a position. However, when his failure is due largely to causes inherent in the community itself, so that his failure redounds rather to his credit than to his discredit, he usually can secure as good a position as before and sometimes a better position. At any rate, he can put forward the fact that he is older than he was, which carries with it the presumption of increased wisdom. The question arises as to how much he may discourse on the causes of his failure. With regard to this matter, it may, indeed, be said that the safe course is to say as little as possible.

The man who has made a failure of one position often can cure the past by taking a post graduate course of professional study, alleging thereafter a great improvement in knowledge as the result of that study. He may profitably analyze his own character and ability, and determine whether he is really competent to serve as an executive. There are many men earning \$1000 as independent principals in the country districts, who are well worth \$1500 or \$2000 as subordinate principals or as assistant high school teachers in the cities. Some men of character are ill adapted to sustain responsibility, but admirably

adapted to assist others in bearing their burdens. That is, they are good advisers but poor directors.

To young men just entering upon the work of the school superintendency, successful educators are very likely to give the following advice: Work regularly, but always a little less than your strength permits. Do not expect any town or city to be grateful for the work you have done in the building up of the schools. On the contrary, that very work may some day lead to your undoing, for a reform party may have no use for the services of a progressive man.

To illustrate: At the end of ten years of very successful service in a certain city, a school superintendent had but one board member left who had served upon the board that had elected him. This man had supported the cause of progress, but at the end of the tenth year inaugurated a movement to force his resignation. The fact that the movement was unsuccessful simply shows that the school superintendent does better to rely upon the good sense of a community upon any present occasion that may arise than upon any gratitude for work done in the past. Upon the tie vote in this particular case, the chairman of the board voted for the incumbent, saying: "I do not like the man, for he is too progressive; but I prefer not to face the parents. They seem to indorse him."

Keep your health, therefore. You will need to look strong and to be strong when you come to apply for your next position. It is a very brilliant invalid who can get school positions. The mind and the conscience of the educator always devise more work for him than he can do in justice to his health. This is as true of him as it is of the physician in successful practice. The opportunities of each to render valuable service to their fellow-men are unlimited.

Another condition arises in respect to getting the office of administrator or supervisor when the man is successful and is called up higher. This call may be not

definite but informal. It may be an intimation that if he desires the position and becomes a candidate for it, he may have it. When a school superintendent or principal has acquired sufficient reputation to be in demand, he must exercise the greatest judgment not to leave a position in which he is successful to take one in which he will be a failure. The call "to come up higher" must be carefully considered before being accepted. It may come from school communities in several different circumstances. The vacancy to be filled may have been created by the death of a successful occupant. In such a case, the position is probably desirable, for the schools are likely to be in good condition, and the town will be anxious to keep them so. In the second place, the vacancy may have been created by the call of the former incumbent to go elsewhere to a better position. In such a case, the position may be desirable, and it may not.

To illustrate: A superintendent receiving \$2000 a year may be called to another position worth \$2500. The fact that the community in which he is successful is willing to allow the matter of \$500 to stand in the way of keeping the man is a point decidedly against the community itself. On the other hand, the community may be willing to raise the successful candidate's salary, and he may be unwilling, for personal reasons, to continue in the place. In the latter case, the position is probably desirable.

But a third case arises, in which the vacancy has been created by the voluntary departure of the superintendent or principal because the educational conditions of the community were intolerable. Under either of these circumstances, the actual conditions of the community require the most thorough investigation before a man successful in one position should resign to accept the call.

Another case arises, in which the community has

discharged the former incumbent because he was a failure. In this case, the newcomer will probably find the schools in a wretched condition, and will have a heavy labor before him. As a general proposition, a man successful in a given position does well to stay in it. But upon the supposition that he is willing to listen to the intimation that he can have the position if he is willing to apply for it, what shall he do in order positively to secure the appointment? Evidently, he must not be too eager, for such eagerness will be misinterpreted. All he can do is to file his papers and suggest an invitation to meet at least the leading board members in a conference. At this conference, it is probably well to state, in general terms, one's educational faith, so that the position, if secured, shall be based upon terms of mutual understanding. It is easier to make a good bargain before employment than after. Hence, it is well to suggest that, if successful at the end of the first year, one would like to have a three- or five-year appointment, or else an election¹ upon an indefinite tenure. This is the time, moreover, to discuss the question of the salary to be paid if successful. It is not desirable to go into the minutiae of educational theories. However, one who believes in the principles of the new education may profitably suggest his faith in these new practices, so that later he may refer to his remarks as a preliminary notification of his purposes.²

¹ Only the very successful man in a good position can dictate an immediate appointment during good behavior, and only a first-class board offering a first-class position will appoint indefinitely or for a term of years. See *Our City Schools*, Appendix "Open Letter."

² A man who was a great believer in manual training at the time of his election stated to the board that he was an enthusiast in regard to manual training, though he was prepared to temper his enthusiasm with common sense. Four years later, upon his first opportunity, he referred to this conversation, addressing his remarks to a board that was composed of almost entirely different members from the board that elected him, saying that, when he was elected, he had told the board that he was a manual training enthusiast. The cooperation of this new board was readily secured.

A number of illustrations may assist us to a clearer understanding of the conditions of candidatures for positions, and of the circumstances into which at times candidates are forced.

By invitation from a school board that controlled a \$1200 position, a candidate met the members in a hallway outside of a lodge. Nine men of ordinary appearance were assembled, of whom five were chewing tobacco, one was smoking, and one was both smoking and chewing. The candidate was told to state his qualifications. When he had completed his statement, he was asked for a chew of tobacco by one of the board members. The candidate replied that he neither chewed nor smoked. This surprising announcement was followed by an immediate proposition from the chairman of this singular gathering to elect him then and there as a fit model for the boys of the schools to follow. This candidate was elected promptly and served happily in the community for several years. The candidate might have declined to join their tobacco festivities in so disagreeable a manner as to have offended these men, but he had answered tactfully but firmly. It appeared later that all the previous candidates were users of tobacco.

A second illustration: A candidate was told by a member of the board of education that it was not worth while to visit certain workingmen who were in the minority. The candidate found one of these workingmen at home in a modest tenement. There they conversed for two hours. This workingman proved to be a natural leader. There was a deadlock at the board meeting that night between two of the strongest candidates, and at the critical moment the workingman put forward the name of the only candidate who had visited him, and secured his election.

A further illustration is the case of a candidate who was told that he could be elected provided he was prepared to accept things as they were, and in particular to keep quiet about a contract for plumbing that the chairman of the building committee had made with himself as a master plumber. Most of the candidates successively declined to keep this condition. The final result was that this particular corruptionist was forced to resign from the board. However, the unfortunate man who was successful in securing the election found that three years later the corruption had returned in a more insidious form than before.

As an offset to the foregoing illustration, we may consider that of the scholarly and able executive who had a perfect system of records, and

whose school reports were models, but who by his papers gave an erroneous impression that he spent all his time in the office. The truth was, that he averaged at least four hours a day in actual class room supervision, despite the fact that he was in charge of a considerable system of schools. When several years later the same superintendency was again vacant, this candidate was then elected at a salary a thousand dollars higher than the position had ever paid before.

A fifth illustration is that of the candidate among some hundreds of others, who secured the election solely because he wrote one brief letter a day to at least one board member until the final casting of the ballots. He thought that "out of sight" is "out of mind," and to remedy this difficulty kept himself before the board by his letter-writing.

An unhappy illustration of the conditions that may be imposed upon candidates before a board is that wherein an informal tender of a position was made by the instruction committee, whereupon the president of the board interposed three conditions. Of these, the first was that the incoming superintendent should ignore the overcrowded condition of the schools. Second, that he should ignore the diversion of a portion of the funds for the use of a school nominally public but really denominational. Third, that he should agree never to interfere in the nomination or election of board members. The successful candidate was the first of the many candidates whom the board could trust implicitly to carry out these orders of the political "bosses" of the community.

Another unfortunate condition was presented in a community in which the applicant was forced to agree to contribute a certain amount of money annually to the funds of two great political parties. This was done, they said, to insure nonpartisanship. One applicant asked where he was to get the money for this purpose, and was told that he could either save it out of his salary, or arrange to secure it from certain school contracts.

Men are defeated for some school positions for reasons that would secure their success in other candidacies. In general, the larger the community, the more probable its requirement that the school superintendent shall be of vigorous personality. In fact, the very qualities of aggressiveness and personal power that often lead to failure in

smaller communities make certain the greatest success in large communities. This illustrates the truth that sometimes it is easier to succeed in great things than in small.

One who deals with the question of getting the office of superintendent cannot ignore the inevitable discussion about the "dead line of fifty." Is there a chance in American education for the man of fifty years of age, who for any reason is out of a position and anxious to get another? It may safely be said that there is no chance for such a man unless he is willing to pursue post graduate studies, or unless he possesses such marked ability and energy as to be a formidable candidate for large school principalships and school system superintendencies. The man of fifty years of age should not be out of a position, but should be in demand. In view of the present conditions in regard to salary, it has probably been impossible for such a man to save up enough money to retire, and in all frankness one is compelled to say that the man of fifty who is in good health but who for some reason is looking for a position in education is in a worse plight than even the superannuated teacher who must apply for a pension.

The course of action that may best be taken by a board of education, when a new superintendent is required, may be inferred from the preceding discussion. Yet certain additional points suggest themselves. In general, it may be said that while school boards spend enough time in selecting the superintendent, they are seldom sufficiently systematic in their procedure to render probable the selection of the best man who is available. A superintendent about to retire from a position may properly advise following a course somewhat as outlined below. It usually assists in the early elimination of the essentially undesirable candidates, and in the centering upon only

the most desirable. A course well deliberated upon may save the mistake of electing emotionally upon first impressions, and the trouble of repenting soon afterwards. This course may be as follows, namely: —

1. Determination of the salary to be paid the first year, and the probable increase, if any, thereafter.
2. The appointment of a special committee of two or three to consider all applications, to correspond with persons named as references, and to give candidates who appear in person the opportunity of reasonably long interviews.
3. A clear definition of the *essential* qualities of the man to be chosen.
 - a. Education, — college, normal school, post graduate.
 - b. Age.
 - c. Married or not.
 - d. Experience, — teaching, executive, supervisory.

In addition, the policy should be determined,

4. Whether or not to request teachers' bureaus to suggest candidates, with or without indorsement.
5. Whether or not to ask in the selection the advice of the retiring superintendent.
6. Whether or not to visit the schools of the most promising candidates.

The questions as to how many persons should be placed upon the subcommittee to nominate the superintendent, whether to place upon it only the representatives of the majority party upon the board (if any), whether or not to elect the nominee at all, and whether to elect him only after his appearance before the full board for interview, must all depend upon local conditions. A board of men of character, intelligence, and business capacity, and working in reasonable harmony, will seldom appoint a nominating committee whose nominee will require to be too curiously

cross-examined in public. The less disagreeable the process of selection, the more easily may the new incumbent adjust himself pleasantly and strongly in the position. The memory of a hard contest for election does not conduce to the earliest efficiency of the superintendent in a new position.

For the reputation of the community, board members at interviews should refrain from discussing other candidates, the faults of the retiring superintendent, and the probabilities of their own vote, or of the decision of the board. While members not upon the special committee should receive calls of candidates and of invited nominees (when two or three are named), they need not feel obligated to grant long interviews. Save in small communities without good hotels, no candidates should ever be invited to lodge with a board member during the canvass. Invitations to meals are distinctly out of order. The whole matter must be dealt with impersonally, though politely.

The time when a new school superintendent is to be elected is the very best time for a board to determine whether or not it desires to have its schools conducted professionally. The so-called system (the Greek *σύστημα* means standing together) of education (which is really an accumulation of embarrassments) may now be summarized by analogy. Imagine the care of the health of a community turned over to a board of health, all of whose members are laymen. Let this board decide upon a uniform course of diet, of drugs, and of surgical measures for any and all conditions of health, disease, and wounds. Let it employ a physician-in-chief with other physicians and surgeons and a body of trained nurses. Let the people of the community vote to this board of health no reward for their own services as managers, and the smallest amount upon which it is possible to secure a sufficient number of persons to go decently through the forms of caring for the health of everybody. Let them denounce

as extravagant, all requests for more medical and surgical facilities, for a broader range in the pharmacopœia, and for higher salaries. Let the board decide whether or not the services of the various physicians and surgeons and nurses are competent. And let the people call the chief physician incompetent when the subordinate physicians or the nurses lose a case. Were such a condition ever to be realized, would not the board of health abdicate its powers as far as possible by delegating them to the chief physician? Would not the medical superintendent and his corps of workers be justified in asking for more power by resolutions of the lay board than are given by statute laws?

Is the analogy too remote? What is education but the care of the health and disease and wounds of the growing mind? And is not the mind more than the body? And does not education really concern even the body?

The barrier to the success of laymen as members of ruling boards of health and of education is ignorance of the fundamental biologic law of civilization, — the law that is in the alphabet of the great professions.¹ Advancing civilization (after all good land has been taken up) requires a lowering of the death rate as far as possible and of the birth rate to the point commensurate with the progress of discovery and of invention favorable to the welfare of life (the point of “diminishing returns,” the principle being carried beyond land to science and industry); an improving of the quality of the children born by retardation of marriage to the period of the highest physical vitality of the parents (Nature has provided against births too late in the life of the mother and rewards youthful chastity by accumulating vital reserves); a lengthening of

¹ The barrier is not insurmountable, but the instances of its being surmounted are still uncommon. The law can be summarized only with difficulty, for, like life itself, it is complex.

the period of infancy; the strengthening of the adult so that physical vigor is maintained into old age (death being by collapse rather than by the expiration of senility); the preservation of the Family (which is the essential and the only absolutely essential institution of civilization); and an enriching of the environment of childhood and youth,—to these ends: that parents may have intelligence, time, and means to develop their offspring, that well-born and well-educated men and women may live out their lives to the full measure of their potency of service, that the wastes of sickness and death may diminish by the cessation of unfit births and the disappearance of partially educated youths. The small family, when still large enough to be a family and to offset the death rate, tends to give the nation hope by giving its children culture, while the large family tends to bring the nation to despair by inducing poverty. A nation with very small families and with many bachelors and maids tends to indolence and decline. The converse of this law completes it. Culture tends to the education of children¹ by teaching love of them for their own sake after birth, and therefore tends to small families, thereby protecting civilization. It is unnecessary to point out here, in how many ways the School works for the law of progressive civilization. Business works against the law, for competition by reducing the wages of the mass, though raising those of the select few who can rent their ability (as very desirable land is rented), and by increasing the rents to be paid for land for homes forces into the background the interests of children

¹ In normal schools, I have found an instructive illustration of this truth. A singularly large proportion of all girls in such schools are either from families of but one or two children or the youngest members of large families. In general, the parents of all normal school pupils are of very limited means. A normal school education is the briefest good higher education open to the children of the poor,

and youth,¹ which are the only important interests of humanity conceived as a race. Thus, competition lowers the general tone of society. The cry of business is for "cheap help" and for "low prices," both perilous to human welfare, both conducive to poverty.² A board of laymen who are only that, who comprehend modern business and have entered into its spirit (or have been conquered by it), and who think that business comprehends life (not knowing that in all history the subordination of a people to business has invariably sealed its doom), actually imperils civilization in the degree of its power to influence general affairs.

That board is truly professional in spirit which, in obedience to the necessity of advancing civilization, empowers professional men (those who have differentiated themselves from the mass and have properly prepared themselves for special functions in the cause of culture) to carry on their peculiar duties in society, and which concerns itself with the tasks of getting funds³ and of coöperating with the professional men in their wise expenditure.

¹ The School teaches love of Nature, which is not innate. The bicycle and trolley are permitting the educated and the well-to-do to live in the suburbs of the great cities and the ignorant and poor to go out into the suburbs to work while they live in the city. The ambition of the poor mother is to live near grocery and provision market and department store (so as to leave untended her little ones at home for the briefest possible time) and to have no yard or garden to care for. She has neither time nor strength voluntarily to be more than a nurse for her children and a cook and laundress for her husband. The ambition of the poor father is to be as near his friends as possible, for society, not solitude, is the refuge, the asylum, of the poor and ignorant. Now the School remedies this (working forever for the law) by teaching love of Nature and creating a demand for space and air. Those who imagine that the electric railroad is taking every one into the country should study the statistics of the cities and visit the suburban factories and railroads at 6.45 A.M. Like every other purely economic improvement, rapid transit into the country works against the unsuccessful poor, that is, the majority of people, by allowing suburban factory help to live in the city.

² See definition, page 356, note 1.

³ If boards of education should spend half their time in work to get funds, they would do better for education than they now do. They prefer the easier labor of trying to reduce expenditures after others have given them what money they chose. To increase the income is the work of men, to reduce the outgo, that of women, as the American household shows. Some men (unfortunately inheriting in civilization feminine minds) spend five dollars' worth of time to save a dollar of money. It is symptomatic of incompetence for a board to worry and to wrangle over petty sums rather than to go out and raise sufficient means to carry on public education creditably. The work of educating public sentiment to reasonable school appropriations should be carried on all through the year by boards of education.

CHAPTER XVI

SALARY, TENURE, AND CERTIFICATE

To know the cause, gives direction to the finding of the remedies. Salaries in education are rising and will continue to rise. They have risen even during years of business depression. Why they are now what they are after many years of prosperity can be stated briefly in the terms of economic science.

In contradistinction from nearly all other workers, teachers are paid by others than those for whom they work. Most teachers work for children;¹ but all are paid by adults, who, though board members, often do not even know the names of their employees. The effect of this is necessarily to cause undervaluation of the ability, energy, and effort of the teachers. The remedy is for teachers to circulate among the people of their communities, and to become as well known out of school as are the business people, and the men in other professions, such as medicine, law, and the ministry.

The public school teacher is the product of two important contributing sources. From the side of the Church,

¹ Despite the fact that the law has always recognized the total incapacity of children to see, to remember, and to express the truth, the testimony of children regarding teachers continues to be taken. Such testimony is almost worthless. Were this a book upon school management, I should multiply the instances. Whether favorable or unfavorable to the teacher, whether upon a special fact or a general matter, the testimony of one pupil or of several, is never to be taken. This is true even of high school pupils. It is difficult for even well-educated men to know and to remember the truth of a conversation or of an event. For the psychological cause of the impossibility for children to see the facts or to hear the truth of the world of adults, see Hall, "Adolescence, its Psychology," page 10. Read also such stories as "A Boy's Town," by Howells.

the teacher may be called the offshoot from the clergy, who in former times offered instruction to the young as the chief of their duties.¹ From the side of the Family, the teacher is an offshoot from the governess and the tutor. These elements contribute dignity, intimacy, confidence, aristocracy, but not financial ease, to the modern teacher's position.

The early universality of teachers made them common, and caused their product to be considered cheap. The remedy for this is increasing the professional qualifications, so that difficulty may bar the doorways into teaching and attest the skill of the teacher.

In the last half-century, the intellectual progress of the world has been extraordinary. Those who understand this are the educated, who are limited in number. Many of the subjects now taught in our elementary schools and most of those now taught in our high schools are unknown to most parents, citizens, and board members. The result is that the scholarship of the teacher is underrated because the value of his or her instruction is unknown to that present generation which holds the purse strings of America. The remedy for this is in getting the adults of the community interested, through the children, in the work of the schools. Many parents do not visit schools solely because they do not like to be made to feel their ignorance.

¹ Nothing more clearly indicates the decadence of the Church than that in Protestant circles it now relegates the instruction of the young to an hour upon Sunday for the benefit of those who come, totally neglecting those who do not care to come. This course is nothing more or less than neglecting its very life blood. The Church has ceased indeed to be a universal institution, and needs itself to be redeemed. "Preach the Gospel to every creature" means being the keeper of the children of the neighborhood. Every child of right is born into the Church as well as into the State, the School, and the Family. Moreover, of right he is born to land for a home and to work for a living.

Historically, it is more correct to say that the ancient priesthood was differentiated into preachers (prophets) and teachers. There is no more interesting inquiry in all the field of sociology than that into the causes of the survival of the pastor who is a faint reflection of the ancient priest in the modern American age.

The resistance to the movement for increased salaries seems to come chiefly from three classes of persons: the heavy taxpayers, especially those who have no children in the public schools; the ignorant poor who are just intelligent enough to be envious of the teacher's easily earned money (so it seems to them); and the teachers who fear that when salaries are raised, together with increased requirements, they will find their own services no longer sufficiently valuable for their continuation in educational work.

With the objection of some of the childless taxpayers and of most of the "soulless corporations," we need have little sympathy. On the contrary, we may feel that the present tax system is essentially imperfect if not actually unjust.¹

The ignorant poor are the very ones for whose children the teacher can do relatively the most. For such adults, there should be evening schools and free lecture courses. They need the light against which they war.

At a council meeting, a man on \$15 a week argued against good salaries for teachers. The millionaire board of education chairman replied very admirably, "What I want this money to increase teachers' salaries for, is to help your children when grown up to be worth to themselves and the world far more than you are, or than I am." The workingman replied that the well-educated children of the well-to-do crowded out the children of the poor, who must leave school early. To this the chairman answered, "So much the more is it necessary to have the best possible teachers in the primary schools."

We may, however, sympathize with the teachers who feel that increased salaries will result in their discharge.

¹ See Appendix XI for a statement of my own opinion regarding a just taxation system. Unquestionably, our people generally do not understand the facts as to the actual wealth of our country at the present time. It seems to be commonly known that we increased in wealth faster than in population during the eighteen years from 1890 to 1908, but the fact that in 1907 we were considered to be worth at least one hundred fifteen billions is not generally understood, and that our business in that year was one hundred billions is challenged. However, the rational man can understand that only so great a business as that could possibly admit the saving of billions annually and therefore the increase in wealth, which is admitted by all. See also Appendix II.

Any legislation, of course, should arrange for the continuance in service of those who are already engaged professionally in the work. New requirements should apply only to beginners and to those who desire higher positions.

The salaries of the teachers are fixed by the representatives of the people, who are generally masterful men of ability, either as politicians or as employers or in the independent professions. Almost always they are men. Most teachers are women. Men never yet have properly valued the work of women, nor women the work of men. Some teachers are men. Many principals are men. Most superintendents are men. It is a conspicuous fact that the men in teaching receive higher salaries than the women. Unfortunately, the result is that the women persistently criticise unfavorably the men's salaries, and thus tend to keep them down. When once it has fairly dawned upon the minds of all the teachers of this country that every salary-increase to any man or woman in the profession tends to increase one's own salary, the compensations of the men and women will rise together even more rapidly than they are rising now. It is beyond question that disaffection between supervised and supervisors tends to keep down the salaries of all. Teachers make one another's reputations. The remedy is for all to unite, teachers and principals alike; and as such a united body to deal with their employers upon the fair grounds of justifiable self-respect and of professional unity. A true profession sets its own fees.

Professional courtesy certainly does not require that a thoroughly good teacher shall speak favorably of one who is hopelessly bad. On the contrary, one's duty to the profession and to the cause of education requires that the incompetent and the immoral shall be read out of the profession by the competent and the good in it. There

ought to be some provision in education equivalent to that in the legal profession by which a corrupt member is disbarred.

The minimum salaries of teachers are determined in part by direct legislation and in part by the individual and professional standards of living. By natural economic principles, teachers will not teach for less than they are willing to live upon. Boards cannot secure teachers for lower salaries than those which afford these standards of living. When political law is added, the supply of teachers is restricted, and the minimum salaries are afforded by those candidates' standards of living who can get certificates to teach. This political law is society's self-defense, in the interest of the young who will be the society and the race of the future, against the strong in the community who look solely to present advantage to themselves and to lowest costs.

The maximum salaries are afforded by the wealth and the ambition of communities that, though they understand that human life can be supported on less than so many hundred dollars per annum, are not willing to pay miserable pittance. They deny that those who train their children should live on the least for which they can be secured. These communities understand that it does not do to get a thoroughbred race horse and to expect him to win races on a hay diet. They propose to give their teachers the most that they can afford to pay.

It is true that a high school staff can be made up easily of young college graduates glad to take \$600, and that the market is flooded with trained kindergartners eager to get \$400. But in no city of ten thousand people in America is it wise or honorable to ask teachers to live upon such small amounts of money.

To secure the maximum salaries, teachers must be very

conscientious in maintaining and in advancing their professional qualifications and must be ambitious to increase their professional reputations. Positive intrinsic worth and activity in professional lines, especially in associations, when combined, touch the pride of communities, and salaries respond by rising. This brings us to the economic principle that affects salary as reward for past success. It is conspicuously true of salaried workers that they are paid not so much for what they are as for what they have accomplished. To be more exact, they are paid in proportion with opinion; and opinion, being formed upon known actions, is based upon the past achievements or failures.

It is well recognized in economic science that the salary principle is unjust in that the position itself rather than the worker in the position determines its amount. Salary does not depend upon product as does wage. Salary does not vary greatly with individuals. It represents the community neither in prosperity nor in adversity, but in its average condition. Teachers would do well to inquire, when offered choice as to localities of employment, which is growing in wealth and population. Communities that are growing in population but not in wealth are most to be avoided. Every salary-receiver has a right to look forward to future increases.

Certain general conditions regarding the salaries of teachers are noteworthy. Where the profit-taker and the weekly wage-earner cannot be secure at any time, the salaried person has a year to anticipate from the time of making the annual contract. This security pays its insurance rates in lower annual returns than insecurity receives. Their neighbors are very apt to overrate the incomes paid salaried men and women. A thrifty pride would prevent this; for where salaries are published, though reputations may suffer, the pocketbooks of the deserving gain.

It has been said that the profession has come from two contributing sources, the clergy and the tutor or governess.

To discriminate clearly the teaching profession from all other occupations, it is desirable to discriminate professional teaching from all other forms of teaching. We are very well accustomed to discriminate between the mother dosing her little ones, the quack with his panacea, and the "regular" physician; only the physician is giving medicine scientifically for the restoration of health. We recognize medicine as a profession; so also law, theology, engineering, and various other occupations. It is well for us to separate the profession of education from all other forms of teaching and to recognize it as such. We know that in our American society are teachers of music, of fine arts, of trades, of devices, of commercial and mechanical arts, even of astrology, palmistry, and various other charlatanries, to say nothing of barbering, horseshoeing, millinery, dressmaking, cooking, and pharmaceuticals, as well as teachers of reading, writing, and arithmetic. Whatever the grown-up folks know, they like to teach to the children. In some degree, all adults are teachers. And there are 440,000 school teachers in our nation, not including the 7300 college professors, or the 20,000 teachers of art, many of whom teach in schools. Just how many tutors and governesses there are, nobody knows. The more or less recognized teachers outnumber the 115,000 lawyers, the 112,000 ministers, and 132,000 physicians, taken together.¹ But to this day, education is not a profession in the same sense as is either medicine, law, or theology. There are several causes for this condition.

To practice medicine, the candidate must secure the

¹ These figures are from the census of 1900. Scarcely half of the lawyers are practicing law, and many ministers and physicians are only nominally so employed, if employed at all. Since as yet no especial honor attaches to being known as a school teacher, few persons report themselves as such unless actually engaged as teachers. With these statistics, compare the 84,000 saloon keepers and 89,000 bartenders, and 117,000 policemen and detectives.

degree from certificated practitioners. To practice law, he must be admitted to the bar by admitted lawyers. To preach theology, he must be ordained by recognized theologians. The gatekeepers to the true professions are selected by the accepted exponents of those professions, to the marked welfare of the general public. Again, medicine, law, and theology, each mean a more or less well-defined body of doctrine or core of thought. Education is beginning to assume similar definition. Each profession has its definite temporal relation. Law seeks to bring the present into line with the past. Medicine deals with the present. Teaching is in the interest of the future. Theology is concerned with the eternal and the infinite. Lastly, the human factor (in a true profession) transcends all material factors. Law seeks to guarantee justice and private rights to human beings. Theology seeks the salvation of human souls. Medicine seeks human health. When teaching no longer places as its goal the pupil's knowing so much grammar, or so much banjoing, or so much carpentering, or so much anything whatsoever, and sets as its goal the development of the human mind, then it becomes a profession. We may call it professional teaching, or school teaching, or education.¹

These facts and principles bear noteworthy relations to teachers' salaries. Making the occupation of teaching a profession means raising the intrinsic value of teaching and the community's opinion of that value. The herb doctor receives less than the physician; the grammarian, than the educator. No one hears reputable successful

¹ Teachers are apostles of the light, missionaries. Their errand is intellectual, moral, spiritual, not material or mercantile. They affect the agriculture, commerce, industry, of the decades ahead, as pilots guide ships; but their direct labor is with souls. Therefore, ought members of this profession to measure themselves resolutely, not in terms of dollars, but by the principles of the life invisible, which, year by year, more and more controls and converts to its own likeness Nature and natural humanity.

physicians talk of "the business of medicine" or reputable clergymen speak of "the business of preaching." The increasing prevalence of the phrase "the business of law" is deplored by the best and most successful lawyers. "The business of education" is on the wane. In these times, the best superintendents and principals are very apt to ask the young college graduate whether he "means to make a life work of teaching." The use of teaching "as a stepping-stone to a profession" is ceasing, and will end when teaching itself is perfectly organized as a profession. There is no antagonism between teaching and woman's natural life work in a home of her own; there is no good reason to ask the young woman of twenty, just graduated from a normal school, whether she intends to make teaching her life work. She does mean to teach all her life, either the children of other people or her own. But the invasion of young men, bent on money-getting, is a curse to teaching, and cultivates in them insincerity and superficiality.

In this age, the salaries of teachers are derived from three sources: the private purses of individuals; the interests, rents, or profits of real estate, stocks, bonds, and other endowment funds; and the taxation of private property by public law. Less than a century has seen the first change from the most to the least important source, and the third from the least to the most important. In the meantime, the revenues from endowments have vastly increased. But all salaries of professional teachers, irrespective of their sources, are non-economic in their nature; they are not "compensations," though it is often hard for the business man to understand this and often distasteful for the teachers to admit it. No professional teacher's service is "worth" money. The teacher is not "worth"

money, but his services require money for their continuance, since they cost him money to produce them. The better the teacher the more his service usually has cost and must continue to cost him in its production. The institution that employs him is employing so much health, vigor, mind, spirit, soul; the income allotted to him measures the amount he is to receive for his bodily, mental, moral, and spiritual sustenance; and to a very great degree this determines the quality of service he is to give. To a like degree, it is folly to put a professor in his professorial chair on the wages of a plowboy, and to put a plowboy in the professorial chair on the salary of a professor. American education knows many instances of its learned scholars and teachers of well-deserved reputation living on ten or twelve hundred dollars a year and some few instances of its immature youths in high places on two thousand a year.

The service of the teacher is not rendered in either the production or the distribution of material wealth. Yet the acquirement of commercial, industrial, mechanical, domestic, and agricultural arts, by education higher than that of grammar grades, is almost certain to increase a boy's or a girl's direct wealth-value to a community. Good literature, science, history, music, painting, — these inculcate love of more beautiful material possessions and arouse the purpose to acquire them. As disciples of our own logic, we are forced to see that our "pay" comes, not as exchange for property surrendered or wealth produced or for services in these connections, but as gifts without equivalents in kind. The teacher's salary is a reward or an honorarium or an annual income commuted in place of fees. In this respect, the teacher's salary stands on the same difficult footing with the preacher's. Some even predict that if

medicine and law survive, they, too, will come to the same evolution.¹

All the activities of the world may be classified as those of business or those of charity. Business is the realm of *quid pro quo*; it includes about one fourth of the activities of mankind.² Charity is the realm where "something" is constantly given or got "for nothing," where real "things" are exchanged for ideas, hopes, sympathies. The market typifies business; the home typifies charity. The farmer brings in vegetables and takes home boots. The father gives food, clothes, shelter, and gets love, sympathy, and care. The balance scale is the instrument of business. The alchemist's refining furnace is the reality of every charitable institution. The hospital receives wealth for its healing of disease and gives back health. The school receives wealth for its instructing of ignorance and gives back intelligence. The home receives wealth to refresh weariness and gives back strength. All the world consumes wealth, and *the final goal of all wealth is useful consumption*.³ In this respect only, as recipients and consumers, do wives, mothers, children, invalids, and the aged, and preachers, teachers, physicians, poets, artists, and law-makers border upon the business world. They make demands upon it, very largely they create its tastes and fashions, but save as bakers of the bread and as makers of the clothes of the wealth-producers they give it nothing

¹ See page 141. The poor to-day need public lawyers to protect their rights.

² The man who in a public meeting attacked the proposition to raise teachers' salaries as "confiscation of private property for the benefit of persons doing no work," threw himself open to the savage reply of a popular agitator. — "They say your income is a quarter of a million a year. No one ever saw you do a day's work in your life." Unfortunately, there is in business a good deal that savors of something for nothing, and in charity a good deal that is singularly businesslike in its attempt to measure equivalents.

³ This was the greatest of all the great ideas of John Ruskin. The Japanese understand the principle better than do we of the Occident.

that may be itself consumed in the support of life. Teachers exist by social favor, expressed publicly or privately. We are desired for our own sakes. We are accepted as proper burdens upon the productive labor of the world. We do not receive more wealth from industrial society because, from habit, tradition, reason, and choice, wealth-controlling mankind does not care to pay us more, and so have less for itself and for its other dependent favorites.

Statistics show that the total population of this country, agricultural, commercial, manufacturing, and mining, directly engaged in producing wealth, does not exceed ten million workers. In short, one person in four, by more or less constant labor with a money return, supports the other three. There are as many school children in this country as there are direct wealth producers. There are twenty million wives, most of whom are dependent upon their husbands; there are a million and a half domestic servants, and three quarters of a million members of the four professions of law, theology, medicine, and education, and over half as many government employees.

All these dependents upon the wealth-producing labor of our people live by the voluntary contributions or by the exactions from the labor of the people as gifts or returns for the necessities of life, or as payment of interest, rents, and profits. If these contributions and exactions should cease, civilization would come to an abrupt and catastrophic end. But the history of the world shows that the increase of inventions means not merely an increase in material comfort and luxury, but an even greater increase in the proportion of the out-of-business to the business members of society.

The teacher's position is secure. Humanity knows that he radiates social companionship and peace, personal aspi-

ration and knowledge of Nature and human nature, qualities never to be forgotten either by the "makers of money" or the producers of wealth. The teacher's salary, therefore, measures his community's desire for his services. We are apt to forget this. The average teacher's salary, \$400 or \$600 or \$800 or \$1000, reflects the community's average sense of the value of teaching to its life, and measures the quality of its desire to educate its young generation. Upon such an analysis, it seems clear that, though interesting, all comparisons of teachers' incomes with those of manufacturers, shopkeepers, clerks, mechanics, journalists, book writers, bankers, civil engineers, and of all who constitute the world of business, are essentially barren of result. But a brief comparison of incomes not derived from the direct production of wealth may be instructive.

In the United States, there are few cities where the salary of the superintendent of schools is as high as that of the leading preacher, or one half the income of the leading doctor, or one quarter that of the leading lawyer. The number of college presidents, school superintendents, and principals who receive \$5000 or over is less than one hundred. But the number of clergymen who receive \$5000 and more is five times as great. Every well-located and permanently established city of ten thousand people has several doctors and lawyers with that income. On the other hand, the total amount of money expended in a given community on preachers seldom equals the total amount expended for teachers. It would probably be a fair estimate to say that the nation's legal advice costs it twice as much as its medical service and three or four times as much as its preaching or teaching.¹

¹ Economists estimate the direct cost of disease at \$2,000,000,000 annually. Since most diseases are caused by ignorance of the laws of physiology and of the principles of hygiene, it is obvious that to increase intelligence is to decrease this immense charge.

We may well believe that the close of the twentieth century will see this relation very greatly changed. We are now in the illogical position of saying that the public service of a school superintendent to his entire community is less desirable and valuable than that of a clergyman who ministers to a single church, or that of a physician who attends a single group of families, or that of a lawyer who looks out for the interests of a single group of clients. In the concrete, we are in the illogical position of saying that the two men whose services as city superintendents now reach in one case three million and a half of people, and in the other case two million, are worth only \$10,000 and \$8000 each respectively, when there are many clergymen, doctors, and lawyers in their communities receiving, for no more competent professional service, benefiting relatively very few people, incomes ranging from \$20,000 to \$50,000 and \$100,000 each. When education has become a completely developed profession, no such comparative condition will exist. Our good sense will cause us to remedy so palpable an absurdity, so flagrant an injustice.

In the average American community of culture, from twenty-five to forty per cent of its taxes are expended upon the schools. This percentage is steadily rising. Of the money expended for schools, about forty per cent is expended for teachers' salaries. This percentage is steadily rising. More than one sixth of the entire population of this country attends school every year. This percentage is steadily rising. The average length of a child's school life is increasing. The number of days each year given to school-going is increasing. Four fifths of one per cent of our entire adult population is now engaged in teaching. This percentage is steadily rising. The stupendous and overwhelming fact is, that, with the single exception of

farming, school-keeping is now quantitatively (and should be qualitatively) the greatest single occupation in this country. It is yearly growing in dignity, importance, and public esteem.

In the public schools, the key to the educational situation is the same key that unlocks the financial resources of the municipality. As long as our schools must depend upon taxes and upon bond issues, the interests of education are necessarily involved in the great problem of taxes. Interesting and important as this problem is, and vital as it is to the cause of education, it lies outside of the especial subject of this book.¹

When education has secured as large a proportion of members of the first excellence in native ability, training, and in character as law, medicine, and theology have long had, its exponents will become very influential factors in American life, and their salaries will correspond.²

An apparently unfortunate feature of the teaching profession is that the class of society from which most teachers are recruited is decidedly poor. Many men are teaching school simply for the reason that they had insufficient money, not merely to go into the so-called learned professions of law or medicine, but even into business.³

¹ See Appendix XI.

² There are three social grades in the economic world,—the wage-earner, the salary-receiver, and the capitalist. These grades are intersected by the division of society into public and private citizens. The most independent man is the private capitalist, the most influential, the rich government official. The policy of all European and Asian governments has been to make every high government official rich. Our policy has been the contrary, — to keep or to make every government officer poor. A change in this policy is certain to come, and when it comes will involve all public school administrators, and will affect favorably all teachers also.

³ This fact is indicated in a rather humorous incident. A superintendent employed a young man who gave very satisfactory service except from the point of view of culture. One day this young man said to him, rather haughtily: "Well, if my father had not died just when he did, I would have been in the meat business in your city." When asked to explain, he said his father had selected a suitable vacant store in the city for a butcher's shop, but on his way back to his home town was taken ill and died. When the family settled the estate, the young man had as his share just enough money to go through the normal school. In other words, the youth was too poor to become a butcher, but had enough means to become a teacher.

From certain points of view, it may seem desirable that teachers should be recruited from the ranks of poverty. But from certain other points of view, this is a misfortune.

1. Since most teachers are poor, they are accustomed to conditions that do not greatly inspire them, or tend to stimulate them in arousing the ambitions of their children. The finest quality in American society is the opportunity to rise in the world, but the teacher who resolutely faces a life upon \$400 or \$500 a year has renounced this opportunity.

2. Whether it is pleasant or not to admit the fact, the poor are characterized by a lack of culture in relation to material things. I firmly believe that the poor¹ are better morally than any other class in American society, but the poor have little opportunity to develop either the intellectual or the æsthetic qualities of human nature. Consequently, we find the teachers themselves somewhat opposed to the movement for broadening and enriching the lives of children beyond the straitened conditions of their own early environment.

3. The fact that most teachers have been born and brought up in poverty makes them subservient toward their official superiors and tyrannical in relation to their own inferiors,—the children. This is an unpleasant thing to say, but the fact cannot be ignored.²

4. But the most trying feature connected with the fact that in our public schools most teachers were born poor, is that they have no means of supplementing their incomes; hence, they must live as teachers, in bare and confined circumstances,—usually a small bedroom. While their subjects tend to enlarge their imaginations and to give them strong desires to travel, to own books, and to hear lectures and concerts, their purses do not permit them any of these “extravagances.” Consequently, most teachers are in an anxious and discontented state of mind. The result in the schools is obvious.³

¹ I define poverty as that condition in which one has for one's self and for one's natural dependents income and capital insufficient to supply all the necessities of life, physical and intellectual, according to the normal standards of the prevailing civilization.

² In a certain city, the president of the school board was the manager of a large department store. In that city, the average salary for teachers was \$300 a year. When an effort was made in his community to raise salaries, he remarked scornfully, “Those teachers are no better than the salesladies in my store, and few of them get more than \$6 or \$7 a week.”

³ I scarcely need say that in communities where teachers are boarders, all teachers ought to receive a sufficient income to have as a home at least three rooms,—one a sitting room and library, another a bedroom, and the third a separate bathroom. Until the teachers of this land have living rooms to which they can decently invite any guest, they have the right to feel that they are not justly treated by the republic which they serve.

The cities control the nation. Nearly all people of influence live in communities. In modern American communities, the social life is larger than the individual life. It requires more energy and results in wear and tear. Consequently, it requires more than the individual life for its maintenance and progress.

All teachers live the social life. They are ceaselessly drained of their physical strength and health, of their time and thought, of their incomes. We wear out fast, wearing out our health, our clothes, our minds, our money.

The teacher works always in the presence of people.

Exhausted teachers are constantly following each other out of the profession, out of life. This wear and tear is a potent cause of the brief average term of a teacher's following the work, five years for the whole nation. A few die; most quit, tired and dissatisfied financially.

Instances are common among women teachers who, failing to secure salary increases desired, accept offers of marriage hitherto declined, or go into profitable business pursuits.

The physician has his patients one after the other, with many a drive in the open air between times.

The teacher has his or her impatient, fifty at a time, for three hours at a stretch, twice daily. In wear and tear of nerves, of physical strength, of that moral virtue which is the very life of the good teacher as of the good doctor, there is little to choose between the two professions. Yet the trained nurse, with her well-earned \$25 a week and board, receives in most communities far more than the trained teacher.

The teacher must grow. Progress is the price of his or her continuance in well-doing. Growth requires expenditure of time and of means. The teacher is usually both

overworked¹ and underpaid. Overworked people have no time and strength by which to protect themselves and to get their rights. They need attorneys.

It is often difficult to diagnose the overwork of young teachers, and most teachers are comparatively young. Youth conceals overwork until the crash comes. Too great devotion is a strange form of sin.

The first teachers in Virginia were bond-servants.

Rome learned Greek philosophy from slaves.

We are free and work for wages.

The early teachers of American schools were wont to sit and sew and rest among their children. They passed the day with the little folks. Modern teachers work under pressure; supervisors are their overseers. We are wage-servants.

In the immense gains of wealth made by the American people since the invention of steam engines and machinery, teachers have had too small a share. In the year 1800, the average wealth per capita scarcely exceeded \$100. In the year 1900, it was \$1200 for men, women, and children, workers and idlers.² (Every American soldier costs \$1000 a year for wages and support.) In this period, the free common school, from kindergarten to university, inclusive, has been established and multiplied. Medicine has risen from empiricism to an effort at science, and surgery has changed from butchery to a wonderful art. Lawyers and physicians who succeed secure incomes equal to those of successful business men.

Teachers who hold positions as principals or instructors may rightfully expect to be considered successful. They

¹ Most of the overwork is due to incompetence. The skilful can with ease do *many times* as much as the unskilful do with difficulty. The underpayment relates rather to the profession than to the individual.

² The U. S. Government estimate for 1907 is \$1375.

should be persons of far more than average ability and education.

Can the American people, the people of the cities, afford to pay successful, highly trained, expert teachers adequate incomes? What is an adequate income? This depends largely upon locality and size of the community, but it is in order to set the standard and should include the following:—

Inevitable physical and intellectual living expenses,—books, travel, recreation, charities, lectures, social affairs, \$600.

Repayment of expenses of education and accumulation of a fund for old age. Any teacher's preparation for the profession should be worth at least \$5000. This should be repaid; it means \$250 a year for twenty years, without reference to interest. Every teacher who reaches sixty years of age ought to have at least \$10,000 as a fund saved up. This means (allowing for compound interest accumulations) saving \$200 a year for thirty-five years. A pension is not enough. The old teacher has a right to a real home, his own or her own property.

Every teacher needs for himself or herself the sabbatical year of rest. The children and the youth, the men and the women, who nourish their minds and souls upon the minds and souls of teachers, need teachers who are well physically and alive mentally to the best modern thought. Every teacher needs \$1200 at least for the sabbatical year. This adds \$200 for the saving fund annually. In consequence, every teacher above twenty-five years of age needs at least \$1250 a year. In large and wealthy cities, the maximum should not be for women less than \$2000 or \$2500, and for men (according to custom), it is likely that \$500 might justly be added. While we are getting such

salaries for our class teachers, we should be equally energetic in securing teachers really worth such compensation.

America, it is alleged, cannot afford to pay these "fancy" salaries. Look at these figures:—

National "drink" bill, annually, \$1,500,000,000.¹

National tobacco bill, annually, \$750,000,000.

National pensions to old soldiers, etc., \$145,000,000.

National educational bill, annually, \$400,000,000.

National government, annually, \$750,000,000.

All other government, annually, \$1,500,000,000.

Total annual American business, to pay wages, rents, interest, profits, taxes, insurance, etc., \$100,000,000.²

National wealth, 1904, \$115,000,000,000.

Average annual surplus, 1890-1907, \$2,500,000,000.³

We are indeed a very rich nation, paying \$250,000,000 annually for oil and gas light. But we are parsimonious in the extreme in paying for, yes, in providing for, the illumination of the mind. We pay for alcohol and tobacco annually per capita \$29, for all forms of education, \$4.00.

If we had the wit to do what wise fathers do, — provide liberally for their sons' educations, — the figures for the nation might be:—

Alcohol, annually, \$400,000,000.

Tobacco, annually, \$250,000,000.

Education, annually, \$2,000,000,000.

Surplus (gain in wealth), annually, \$5,000,000,000.⁴

¹ *American Grocer*, 1904. See page 314. Beer alone, \$700,000,000, retail.

² This total is extremely variable. The year's business of 1894 may not have reached \$60,000,000,000.

³ For other figures, see my "American History." See also Appendix II.

⁴ It is certainly not unwarranted in the educator to call attention to the vast amount of wealth now being consumed annually in magnificent town and country houses, the luxuries, the services of certain persons, "the upper ten thousand," who by law, and sometimes by merit, are able to divert the labor power of America to their peculiar glory. Beer is not our only waste: champagne is another. Of course, luxury makes work. So does a fire or a tornado. So long as any of my school children must have their poor teeth drawn for want of

Does any teacher hesitate to accept these figures? The reason why America is progressing so fast is because there is so much good teaching. If there were five times as much; if children went to school not merely five and one half years on the average, but eleven years; if free public evening courses were offered everywhere,—the above estimates would prove less favorable than the facts.

We can well afford to invest more in culture and morality—that is, in teachers. The nation gets back, not three per cent interest, but many hundred per cent.

The true American gospel is the gospel of salvation by education. The God of Nature plants in nearly every child the potency of great service. Sufficient education can make almost any one nobly useful to humanity. The School gives the State its character, multiplies the efficiency of the people, and creates wealth by increasing wisdom.

Why cannot we go forward faster? Because, as a profession, we have never seriously questioned things as they are. Because the school superintendents and principals who ought to be the attorneys for the teachers are not. Because all persons deal with their employment as individuals, while the employers, the community of parents, act as a unit. Because the subordinates are unwilling to face and to correct the errors of incompetent superiors. Because we look at the small incomes of the country people and forget the inconceivably great riches of the fortunate few in the cities. Because, though teachers, we ourselves do not know the real facts of American wealth and the essential purpose of Americanism, to give opportunity to all.

means for proper dental services, though both father and mother work, my opinion of the partial iniquity of the present economic regime is unlikely to change. The only law that is law forever is the law of Jesus Christ, whose law the despised Samaritan obeyed. Nations must obey that law or perish, as history testifies. Luxury, like ambergris, is the product of disease. Judging no individuals, but glossing no facts, the educator may consider the education of a nation to its duty as a democracy,—to order justly the distribution of wealth.

There are, indeed, many incompetent subordinates in the schools; the salaries are too low to guarantee that all teachers shall be of the first quality. We must remember, it may be in bitterness of heart, that as a profession we are getting not very much less than we are now worth. The law of supply and demand, of quality for price, is generally fair. We are cheap partly because many of us are not very competent. But there is a way to remove subordinate teachers for incompetence or unfaithfulness, a way for the educators themselves. There is, however, no way yet provided by which incompetent superiors may be removed by professional action. Few teachers dare to say anything. There are no associations or councils ready to speak.

Physicians may, and do, unite and fix their own fees. They provide the entire membership of boards of health of States and often of communities. Even in this age of the decline of the ministry, priests and preachers fix the membership of their own professions and have larger control of parish finances than teachers at the present time dare to expect. As for lawyers, they are indeed a "law unto themselves." With these professional people and their incomes, when successful, in mind, consider these financial standards for successful teachers:—

Principals of 16-room elementary schools, minimum	\$3000
Principals of elementary schools, maximum . . .	\$10,000
Teachers of elementary schools, minimum . . .	\$1200
Teachers of elementary schools, maximum . . .	\$3000

Let us think of these things. They mean much to the generations ahead. It may be well also to undertake physical as well as mental, and moral as well as physical, athletics, for there is a warfare to come.

Teachers save every generation from barbarism and all that is good in the world from wreck. There is no person of any considerable value, from Boston to San Francisco, who is not the art product of teachers.¹ In a profound sense, we are the parents of the national intelligence, and our reward in gratitude and wealth is not much better than that of most parents from their children.

The great barrier can be removed, and things will be better all around. This barrier is the place-getting and place-holding and perhaps hard-working school superintendent, who nevertheless is often an immeasurable injury to the schools. The public, even the public on boards of education, usually cannot discriminate between the very active superintendent who does many things worth while and the one perhaps equally active who does nothing worth while. The idle incompetent is less dangerous than the energetic. The political superintendent is afraid to advocate high salaries, for his mission is to employ subordinates for low salaries and to gloss over their deficiencies. He protects principals who have not changed a single idea in a score of years, and then wonders why his schools are not highly favored by the public. His state is indeed pitiable. He may be called a "high-salaried official," but in point of fact there are in teaching no salaries any self-respecting physician or lawyer or banker would call "high"; and as for being an official, he is humble enough toward his creators.

A very intelligent and highly trained teacher who did admirable work said of her principal, a routinist: "I am sick at heart whenever I talk

¹ For the details of the education of Abraham Lincoln, see his *Life* by Tarbell, Vol. II pp. 32-34, and also his *Life* by Curtis. He acquired a good high school education, employing private teachers. See my *American History*, p. 366. In a certain city, an attack upon grammar and high schools, by a "self-made man," who argued that our greatest President had no education, was met successfully by a board member who knew the facts.

with him. He is more hopeless than a wooden Indian. He has less mental activity, less ingenuity, less sympathy than my poorest pupil." This remark, though not far from true, cost the modern teacher her place. Discharge is sometimes a recommendation.

The removal and the extinction of the superintendent who does not regard all teachers, all parents, all the children, as his clients in a sacred trust, to win for them all that can be secured from the world, can be accomplished by educational councils of the teachers, led by persons who need to look to no others with fear for favor. Then the day will pass forever when the sincere exponent of educational opinion is met with the admonitions: "It's best to be cautious." "Don't do this, for it's not wise." "You may lose your place if you say that out loud."

Why is it that so many superintendents have preferred not to be tried by their peers? Because too many rise to place and influence, though not to affluence, for which they are educationally unprepared.

Are these things so? If so, they ought not to be. And if they ought not to be, our duty lies plain before us.

Many questions have arisen as to what should be the proportion of salaries for superintendents, principals, and teachers in a school system, in order that it may be little less than perfect, though not ideal. The following figures for a school system of one hundred teachers are suggested. By means of such salaries as these the school community of four thousand children can have the best teachers now available in the United States.

Superintendent of schools, \$5000, with five-year term of office, or else indefinite tenure.¹

High school principal, \$4000, with life tenure.

Elementary supervisor, \$3500, same tenure, as indeed in the case of all other teachers of proven competence.

¹ The highest officers should be allowed traveling expenses to visit schools, candidates, associations, and be given secretaries, and all office expenses, such as postage. Amazing as it may seem, in many schools, principals must buy all office stationery, etc. These are petty matters, but they reflect the intelligence of the community.

Complete grammar school principals, \$3000.

Head supervisors of art and music, \$2500 each.

Head supervisors of manual training and physical culture, \$2500 each.

High school teachers and other specialists, minimum, \$1000, maximum, \$2500, with life tenure after first year.

Grammar grade teachers, including kindergartners, minimum, \$600, maximum, \$2000, same tenure.¹

In such a system, the clerk or secretary of the board would receive \$1800 to \$2500. And there would probably be a business manager, also, upon a similar salary or one somewhat higher.

For such salaries as these, though not ideal, and seldom approximated anywhere, a small city is comparatively sure of soon developing a system almost faultless. The foregoing list shows what the relative salaries should be in a city of twenty thousand anywhere in this country, and we may be sure that within a decade the present strong tendency in this direction will reach this point.

A twenty per cent reduction from these figures would insure a fine school system. There are indeed not a few cities whose salaries are sixty and seventy per cent of these amounts.

For the salaries of janitors, the following basis is suggested for small cities: —

For the position itself, annually, \$100, irrespective of the size of the school.

For every class room, assembly room, and workshop, \$60.

For every fire to be kept, \$25.

For every hundred feet of sidewalk, \$25.

For every acre of ground to be cared for, \$100.

For every evening school or lecture session, add \$2.

All janitors should employ and pay for their own assistants, who should be persons acceptable to both board and superintendent. After one year, the tenure of janitors should be as good as that of the teachers.

Regarding leaves of absence and absences from sickness, the farther we can get from the prevailing practice in relation to teachers the better. There is no good reason why municipalities should not grant leaves of absence on half pay to deserving teachers. That is a sound business

¹ The salaries of the maids, servants, etc., necessary for the ideal school, should be sufficient to secure the best assistance available. No employee should be paid so little as to be in constant poverty.

policy. It would be indeed good policy to require the sabbatical year of absence. With such a policy, physically worn-out, mentally impoverished, routine, unhappy old teachers, would be almost unknown, much to the joy of parents and children, much to the benefit of American intelligence.

Teachers absent on account of sickness are justly entitled to receive full pay. This is the time when they need it most.¹

All substitutes should be paid liberally, but not out of the slender salaries of sick people. Nothing conduces more to the loyalty and to the enthusiastic industry of a body of teachers to the community than salary payments during illness, especially when the illness is long continued. Even when a teacher, thus cared for during illness, leaves the employ of the community, the reputation for generous humanity inspires all the others.

Since, in many cities and towns, children are really better off in school than out of it, and since teachers must have, at least, the two months' summer vacation, lest their health be wrecked, and should have breathing times for rest and study combined, a plan has been suggested to divide the school year into two major and two minor terms, the former of four months, the latter of two months each. After each term is to be a week of vacation. In the major terms, September–December and March–June, the chief work is to be intellectual and with books; in the minor terms, January–February and July–August, the chief concern is to be with physical and technical subjects. In the minor terms, defective work is to be made up. It is proposed where such plans go into effect that class teachers will teach a major and a minor, omit a major, teach a minor and a major, omit a minor, etc., and after permanent appointment receive regular monthly pay throughout the year. The advantages of this to health and intellectual vigor are obvious.

It remains to discuss briefly the tenure of teachers. It is desirable that teachers shall pursue their work without fret or worry while they continue in the profession, or at least in their present school. The State government, after rigid examination, should pay annually those young men and women in the normal schools who, in the

¹ See G. S. Hall, "Psychology of Adolescence," Chapter VII, for an argument wherein is displayed conclusively the fitness of the custom of allowing women teachers at least two days' absence every month with full pay. This applies especially to young women.

judgment of the principal and faculty, are likely to be successful in teaching. Since the United States government can afford to pay its cadets in the naval and military academies several hundred dollars a year to learn how to make war, certainly the State government can afford to pay the educational students who are learning how to make civilization. War is a social disease. Education is health. These young people while definitely pursuing pedagogical courses should receive from \$300 to \$500 a year after the first year.

The first point in the program of educational progress is that the minimum salary to be paid in any State for teachers should be at least \$600, of which the State, from general taxes, may well pay \$200, leaving the local community to pay the balance. When financially possible, the State should pay one half of all salaries. Such a measure would immediately tend to raise all salaries.

The second point in the program of reform is that the entire employment of teachers ought to be in the hands of professional educators.

The third point places in the hands of educators the transfer and discharge, as well as original appointment, of all teachers.

The fourth point in the program is that after the first year in the position the teacher's tenure at the salary should be absolute, except for immorality or incompetence.

The fifth point is that advancement in salary, or in position and salary together, should be made only upon the basis of examination in new studies and of proven successful experience.

The sixth point is tenure of office or a fixed term for school superintendents, supervisors, and principals.

The seventh is a pension for actual disability, the amount to be one half of last salary.

In view of this program there are needed several different certificates.

1. The first principle of the certificate is that it should be not a license to teach but a real witness of competence. The ordinary license of the teacher is little more than a

permission to teach, purchased, as it were, by so many hours of study.

2. The second principle is that no examiner of teachers should be anything else than himself a certificated teacher. He should owe his own certificate to other certificated teachers.

3. The third principle is that every person anywhere in the State or local school system should be a teacher with a certificate. This principle applies to the State superintendent as well as to the kindergartners.

4. The fourth principle is that the examinations should be thorough and extensive and should be both written and oral. In present practice, most teachers' examinations are too easy and constitute a menace to the welfare of children and youth.

The first of the certificates is the diploma of a normal school, or accredited college, with at least a one-year course in the history of education, which should be sufficient to admit a teacher to trial for one year. This constitutes the apprentice's certificate.

The second certificate should be secured upon the exhibit of the first and proof of at least one year's successful experience, and examination in two professional studies. Advanced Psychology¹ and Theory and Practice should be necessary for a life certificate good for any elementary class position in the State.

The third certificate should be for high school instruction, and should be granted only to persons who are graduates of accredited colleges with at least one year of professional post graduate work. It should be valid for only one year.

The fourth certificate should be for the same position, but permanent. It should be granted upon similar conditions to those controlling the elementary school teacher's certificate.

The fifth certificate should be one requiring an exhibit of either the second or fourth certificates, and should involve proof of special studies

¹ See Appendix III; Hall, "Psychology of Adolescence," Preface and Chapter XIV; and Spaulding, "The Individual Child and his Education" (4 Nos.), especially notes by editor.

for administration and supervision. This should be valid and requisite for principalships and superintendencies.

The sixth certificate should be granted upon exhibit of either the second or fourth, or else upon examination to test the special fitness of candidates for positions as supervisors in special subjects. This certificate should be good for one year.

The seventh and last certificate should be permanent like the second, fourth, and fifth, and should be granted upon exhibit of the fifth, and proof of one year's successful experience, together with continued post graduate studies.

These seven certificates should be the sole minimum certificates for the entire State. It is unwarranted that the normal school diploma should become a life certificate to teach anywhere in the State merely upon proof of one or two years' experience. The normal school diploma is too easily obtained to warrant such a regulation. More objectionable still is the provision in many States for allowing every separate municipality to issue certificates, unless such certificates require State certificates for entrance to examination and additional subjects.¹ Otherwise, it is better to remove the certificating authority to a point remote from local influence. We do not allow the communities to issue medical certificates, and there is no good reason to allow them to issue minimum pedagogical certificates ; in fact even less, for the doctors do not, by means of their certificates, draw upon public tax funds. Moreover, the incompetence of the physician at most means but physical death, while that of the teacher may mean worse.

The final upshot of this whole matter of salary, tenure, and certificate is that the welfare of the American people, the permanence of democracy, depends upon free public education, upon its extent and thoroughness, and upon its vitality. All who realize that liberty is a matter not only of the will but also of the intellect will constitute themselves enthusiastic advocates both of the severest restrictions upon the entrance of teachers into the profession, and also of far greater rewards than now fall to those who by directing the education of boys and girls, largely determine the development of the America of the future.

¹ *Our City Schools*, Chapter X.

APPENDIX I—AGES IN GRADES

THE probable ages and grading per thousand boys and girls under twenty-one years of age in a community of fair intelligence in a State that enforces compulsory attendance for all children under fourteen years of age may be represented as follows, namely:—

AGE IN YEARS	NUMBER IN SCHOOL IN	
4-5	32	} Kindergarten.
5-6	75	
6-7	100	
7-8	105	
8-9	108	} Grammar School (elementary grades).
9-10	105	
10-11	100	
11-12	95	
12-13	90	
13-14	80	} High School (secondary grades).
14-15	70	
15-16	40	
16-17	20	
17-18	8	
18-19	3	} College, etc.
19-20	2	
20-21	1	

In a fifth-year class, completing its grade, with four years more before entering the high school, the ages of the pupils are likely to be as follows, namely:—

AGE IN YEARS	NUMBER ON BASIS OF 50 ENROLLED	AGE IN YEARS	NUMBER ON BASIS OF 50 ENROLLED
9	3	13	7
10	11	14	3
11	13	15	2
12	10	16	1

A year hence it will probably be as follows; namely:—

AGE IN YEARS	NUMBER, TOTAL 45	AGE IN YEARS	NUMBER, TOTAL 45
10	3	14	6
11	11	15	2
12	12	16	1
13	10		

When the State's compulsory attendance age limit is the fifteenth birthday, the result is likely to be as follows, at the close of the seventh-year class, two years below the high school, namely:—

AGE IN YEARS	NUMBER, TOTAL 36	AGE IN YEARS	NUMBER, TOTAL 36
11	3	14	8
12	10	15	3
13	11	16	1

In short, though five years intervene between the fifth year (elementary school) and the tenth year (first high school year), usually the average difference in age between the two classes does not exceed three and a half years. The younger and the brighter school children constitute almost the entire group that goes to the high school.

Of 1000 children in an elementary school, nearly 700 are usually in the kindergarten and the first four years following, and not many over 300 in the four years below the high school. Whereas, even allowing for a death rate of twenty per thousand, the statistics would lead us to expect five ninths, or 555, in the lower five years and 445 in the upper four years.

These 1000 children, if all were to go to a four years' high school course, would be reduced to 445 theoretically, whereas the community of the size indicated that actually sends 100 of its children to the high school is relatively fortunate. Even then, four fifths of these will be in the first two years.

We have, therefore, this condition in a thirteen-year course, which may be taken as standard, though not ideal.

13th year	The province of the high school principal; voluntary attendance at high school, a selected class of pupils.	The province of the grammar school principal.	
12th year			
11th year			
10th year			
9th year	Voluntary attendance; grammar grades.		
8th year			
7th year	Partly voluntary; partly compulsory.		
6th year			
5th year	Primary grades; compulsory attendance after 2d year.		
4th year			
3d year	Kindergarten; voluntary attendance.		
2d year			
1st year			

APPENDIX II. — WEALTH

I. THE FACTS

A. Among statisticians, official and unofficial, — the government experts, the university professors, the publicists, and others who study the subject for business purposes, — there is no disagreement as to the amount of American wealth in the year 1912, namely, about \$189,000,000,000.¹ The average American, man, woman, and child, black and white, from Maine to California, from Florida to Washington, owned in 1912 \$1980 worth of property. The average family was worth about \$9000.

B. The United States appears to produce annually from \$50,000,000,000 to over \$100,000,000,000 worth of wealth, averaging \$90,000,000,000.² The average person, young and old, North, South, East, and West, produces and receives on the average annually \$1400; while the average family produces and receives a little less than \$7000 annually.

C. The average annual increase in wealth is over \$2,000,000,000. Despite the enormous wastes of luxury,³ sports (especially horse racing),

¹ See articles by M. G. Mulhall and Edward Atkinson, and reports of U. S. Bureau of Labor, U. S. Census Bureau. All statements in this Appendix are based upon publications of standard authority or upon conference and correspondence with American and European experts.

² This opinion is based upon a close study of National, State, and municipal government reports, of the balance sheets of railroad and manufacturing corporations, and of the circulation of money. In prosperous times, the entire currency appears to circulate in four weeks, in times of adversity scarcely once in four months. The oftener money circulates the more frequent are the opportunities of profit and the higher is the average per cent of profit. A vast expansion of credit means the hope of high and frequent profits; a sudden contraction, fear for the safety of the capital itself. From the same study, it appears that wages on the average represent twenty per cent of the price received for the product. The rest goes for interest, taxes, rent, insurance, advertising, waste (and sinking fund), and profit. Advertising cost \$2,500,000,000 in 1905, over eight times as much as all forms of education. It appears that four-fifths of the incomes of our people are paid in the forms of dividends, interest, rents, profits, and government salaries. Few teachers receive any income from private sources. Most teachers have made no investment for their education; some have invested from \$500 to \$2000 for a normal school education, a few from \$1000 to \$3000 for a college education, here and there one from \$500 to \$5000 for a university postgraduate education. For the wage-earning, non-capitalistic teacher to save capital out of the small wages now received is to turn aside from opportunities for higher culture and therefore greater teaching service.

³ In order to prevent these remarks from being misconceived, let it be understood that American teachers are not communistic, and have no desire whatever to divide up among

liquor, tobacco, vice, disease, and crime, all of which together include the withdrawal of several million workers from the number of the producers of beneficial wealth, the nation is fast growing richer. We save annually \$35 per person.

II. THE APPLICATION

The two economic causes of the average low salaries of school teachers, namely, one fourth of the average income of all the workers and non-workers in our country, are periods of industrial depression and the country population. Industrial depressions always follow panics, and panics are the result of the effort of our people in periods of prosperity to earn six per cent, eight per cent, twelve per cent upon our capital,¹ when we can really earn only (save) about three per cent, that is, \$5,000,000,000 upon \$189,000,000,000. Teachers are employed all the time, in years of depression² as well as in years of elation; but having no unions by which to force the salaries of the panic years up to reasonable amounts, their increases are due only to public good will and are very small. Because their incomes are public, they are well known and easily reached by the democratic will to retrench. Teachers are not paid average incomes, taking good years with bad, but minimum incomes.

Still more important than the above cause is that the teaching forces of the cities are regularly recruited from the country. The dollar, in all matters of labor, has far greater purchasing power in rural than in urban districts. But the wealth of the nation is concentrated in the cities for

themselves the \$9,000,000,000 of wealth of the 3000 American millionaires, though it would give them the tidy sum of \$2000 each. On the contrary, we believe that higher salaries for teachers would vastly increase American wealth and incomes by improving the industry and skill of employers and of employees. To spend annually \$60,000,000 on pianos and only \$310,000,000 on schools, seems out of proportion, though no one would argue seriously against the pianos.

¹ This capital includes not only wealth invested in buildings, machinery, and other wealth-producing facilities, but also capitalized land rents, which are purely a drain upon our resources. The land cost no one anything to produce. The real effort has been to earn from six per cent to twelve per cent, or even more, upon the business capital, after paying rents and interests upon some thirty or more billions of dollars of property in land. A great deal of wealth is not private property (*e.g.* a public highway), and a deal of property is not real wealth (*e.g.* a mortgage).

² As President A. T. Hadley of Yale University pointed out a dozen years ago, in panic years, fictitious capital, excessive "good will," overdue but unearned interest, profits, wages, and salaries above their market value are all wiped out. In the depression that follows, we build anew from "rock bottom." Then the poor "pay the piper" whose melody set so much business in the dance of speculation. See the various excellent books on economics by Hadley.

expenditure and consumption. Even the poor of the cities have more money to spend than the well-to-do of the country districts, as any visitor to city places of amusement sees at once. In the country, a family with \$1000 income is comfortably situated; in the city of a million people, that family is poor. In the country, \$10,000 a year is wealth; in the great city, where ordinarily good houses rent for from \$3000 to \$5000, it is only a competence. In the country, \$1,000,000 a year is unknown. There are a hundred families in the great cities whose incomes are greater than that. The bricklayer who would get \$2.50 a day in the country expects and gets from \$5 to \$7.50 a day in the city and strikes for more because he really needs it. So long as the theory continues that a good country teacher will make a good city teacher, and a good country principal a good city principal, the salaries of city teachers and principals will be only slightly more than country salaries, and this irrespective of whether or not the particular city teacher was country bred.

In conclusion: As a people, we spend too much upon bricks and too little upon brains, too much upon beer and tobacco and too little upon art and music, too much for personal service and too little upon professional, too much upon luxuries and too little upon lives, too much upon drugs and too little upon hygiene, too much upon the amusement of the happy and too little upon the alleviation of the sorrowful, too much for the glorification of Mammon¹ and too little for the elevation of Man.²

¹ Compare the interior of the ordinary city bank with that of the ordinary schoolhouse, and ask, Which is dearer to us, money or manhood? Yet Speaker J. G. Cannon of the House of Representatives said, on July 24, 1904, in the Republican address of nomination to President Theodore Roosevelt, three things are "essential to the prosperity of a great people, material well-being, education, and statecraft." And what is statecraft but native talent quickened by education, and what is native talent usually but being born of well-educated parents?

² The function of the educator is completely discharged when he calls attention to the conditions requiring remedial legislation. Expert political economists rather than educators are required to show the American people a way to provide reasonable incomes for teachers out of the wealth now being produced. So many educators have studied none of the political sciences that I may be permitted to call attention to some of the standard works:—

Political Economy. F. A. Walker. *Introduction to Political Economy.* L. Cossa (several translations). *Principles of Political Economy.* C. Gide, translated by Vedetz. *Outlines of Sociology.* L. Gumplowicz, translated by F. W. Moore. *Principles of Sociology.* F. H. Giddings. *Principles of Sociology.* H. Spencer. *Statistics and Economics.* R. Mayo-Smith. *Statistics and Sociology.* R. Mayo-Smith. *The Past in the Present: What is Civilization?* A. Mitchell. *Social Control.* A. E. Ross. *History of the Science of Politics.* F. Pollock. *Introduction to Political Science.* J. R. Seeley. *Theory of the State.* J. K. Bluntschli, translated by Ritchie, Matheson, and Lodge.

APPENDIX III. — LIBRARIES

A. SCHOOL REFERENCE

WHILE every school needs first its special class libraries for the pupils, it needs also a general reference library.

1. At least one encyclopedia.

There is no one "best encyclopedia." There are serious reasons why the encyclopedias with long articles should be avoided when purchases are being made for school libraries. Short articles are desirable. Care should be taken not to purchase encyclopedias whose scientific articles are out of date. Examine several encyclopedias before buying one.

2. Several dictionaries.

The International, Worcester, The Standard, The Century, Stormonth.

3. Foreign language dictionaries.

4. Several large illustrated histories of the world.

5. Several atlases and complete gazeteers.

6. A Nature library (so-called) ; that is, a complete set of illustrated books (or several sets) about animals, birds, insects, plants, geography, etc.

7. Several illustrated works upon the history of art.¹

8. The great American poets.

9. The great American historians.²

10. Files of standard literary periodicals.

¹ In the purchase of pictures, there are three standards to all of which every picture should conform: —

1. The picture should be interesting to the children.

2. It should teach eternal truth.

3. It should be an art masterpiece, worthy of emulation. In addition, most of the pictures should be cheerful in subject.

² The extent to which the library may be developed is practically unlimited. A good general library of five or six thousand volumes is none too large for a grammar school and is really needed in a high school, even in the community with a good free public library. At first, it may be wise to purchase only the best works (rather than sets) of the great authors of literature, history, science, music, travel, etc. It is highly desirable to take the best periodicals of literature and art. Funds may be raised for the purpose by entertainments as well as by taxation. The financially profitable school entertainments are those in which the children are the chief actors,

B. FOR TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

The list includes only books with suggestions for administration or devoted exclusively to the broader matters of education.

1. A file for several years back of the best teachers' journals and magazines, of which there are now too many to permit classification and consideration in detail. Among the best are *The Educational Review*, N.Y. City; *Journal of Education*, Boston; *School and Society*, N.Y. City; *School Century*, Oak Park, Ill.; *The Pedagogical Seminary*, Worcester, Mass.; and *The School Review*, Chicago. Every school should take one or more of the educational papers especially edited for the neighborhood.

2. Several great publishing houses are now issuing teachers' professional libraries. The most extensive are those of Appleton and Heath. Others are published by Macmillan, Longmans, American Book Company, Silver, Scribners.

3. A file of the Annual Reports of the United States Commissioner of Education.

4. A file of the Reports of the National Educational Association.

5. Psychology and Child Study.

Adolescence; Its Psychology. 2 vols. G. S. Hall. A vast and profound work.

Talks on Psychology and Life's Ideals, and *Psychology.* William James.

Books by a master of psychological science and of the literary art. *Mental Development.* 3 vols. J. M. Baldwin. Probably the greatest original contribution by an American to the science of psychology. Very interesting.

Lectures on Human and Animal Psychology. W. Wundt, translated by Titchener.

Outlines of Psychology. O. Külpe, translated by Creighton and Titchener. The above are two of the greatest available German works; they make the foundation of a library of modern scientific psychology.

Outlines of Psychology. J. Royce.

Genetic Psychology. C. H. Judd.

Habit and Instinct. L. Morgan.

The Mind of the Child. 2 parts. W. Preyer.

Conscious Motherhood. E. Marwedel.

The Play of Man. K. Groos.

Human Nature Club. E. E. Thorndike.

Psychology of Childhood. F. Tracy.

Outlines of Psychology. E. B. Titchener.

Psychology of Child Development. I. King.

Studies of Childhood. J. Sully.

The Physical Nature of the Child and How to Study It. S. H. Rowe

Fundamentals of Child Study. E. A. Kirkpatrick.

The Child; A Study in the Evolution of Man, and The Child and Childhood in Folk-Thought. A. Chamberlain.

The Boy Problem. W. B. Forbush.

The Evolution of Dodd. W. H. Smith.

The Study of Children and Their School-Training. Francis Warner.

Education of the Central Nervous System, a Study of Foundations. R. P. Hallock.

Psychologic Foundations of Education. W. T. Harris.

Education as Adjustment, and Dynamic Factors in Education. M. V. O'Shea.

6. Physiology and Hygiene.

The Hygiene of Transmissible Disease. A. C. Abbott.

Eye-Strain in Health and Disease. A. L. Ranney.

Errors of Refraction and Strabismus or Squint, Latent and Fixed. F. Valk.

School Hygiene. E. R. Shaw.

The Development of the Child. N. Oppenheim.

The Growth of the Brain, a Study of the Nervous System in Relation to Education. H. H. Donaldson.

Indoor and Outdoor Gymnastic Games. A. M. Chesley.

School Sanitation and Decoration. Burrage and Bailey.

7. School Management and Instruction.

School Management. E. E. White.

School Management and Social Phases of Education. S. T. Dutton.

Classroom Management. W. C. Bagley.

Class Teaching and Management. W. E. Chancellor.

Principles of Education practically applied. J. M. Greenwood.

Art of Teaching. E. E. White.

Art of Study. B. A. Hinsdale.

Method in Education, a Text-book for Teachers. R. N. Roark.

A New School Management. L. Seeley.

Our City Schools: Their Direction and Management. W. E. Chancellor.

Talks on Teaching. F. W. Parker.

8. History and Theory of Education.

A History of Education. G. Compayré.

A History of Education in the United States. E. G. Dexter.

A History of Education. F. V. N. Painter.

A History of Education. T. Davidson.

The Meaning of Education and Other Essays and Education in the United States. N. M. Butler.

- Education in the U. S., its History and Science of Education.* R. G. Boone.
Syllabus of History of Education. E. P. Cubberly.
Text-Book of the History of Education. P. Marode.
Educational Reform. C. W. Eliot.
An Ideal School. P. W. Search.
Education. H. Spencer.
The Making of Our Middle Schools. E. E. Brown.
A Broader Elementary Education. J. P. Gordy.
The Foundation of Education. L. Seeley.
Educational Aims and Educational Values. P. H. Hanus.
The School and Society. J. Dewey.
The Making of Citizens, a Study in Comparative Education. R. E. Hughes.
Philosophy of Education. J. K. F. Rosenkranz. Trans. by A. C. Brackett.
A Theory of Motives, Ideals, and Values in Education. W. E. Chancellor.
Old Time Schools and School Books. C. Johnson.
Means and Ends of Education. J. L. Spalding.
An Experiment in Education. M. R. Alling-Aber.
Franklin and Education. D. E. Cloyd.
The Place of Industries in Elementary Education. K. E. Dopp.
Care of Destitute, Neglected, and Delinquent Children. H. Folks.

9. Miscellaneous.

- Ascent of Man.* H. Drummond.
The Whence and the Whither of Man and Growth and Education. J. M. Tyler.
Education and the Larger Life. C. H. Henderson.
A History of the Warfare of Science and Theology. A. D. White.
Psychic Factors of Civilization. L. F. Ward.
The Rights of Man. L. Abbott.
Heredity and Social Progress. S. N. Patten.
Footnotes to Evolution. D. S. Jordan.
Evolution of Industrial Society. R. T. Ely.
Science and Education and Methods and Results. T. H. Huxley.
The Transit of Civilization. E. Eggleston.
The Buried Temple. M. Maeterlinck. Translated by A. Sutro.
Through Nature to God. J. Fiske.
Bibliography of Education. W. S. Monroe.
Bibliography of Child-Study. L. Wilson.
Bibliography of Education. Library, Columbia University.

NOTE.—There are two general lines by which to proceed in the improvement of the position of the teacher. One is politico-economic. It involves change from weekly or monthly wage as an employee to tenure as a salaried office-holder. This change is in the external relations of the occupation and effects its political, economic, and social elevation. Such is the theme of this book. The other line proceeds to the transformation of the wage-occupation into a profession of public service. It involves change in the internal relations and necessitates the increase of professional knowledge and skill.

APPENDIX IV. — PARLIAMENTARY RULES

TABLE OF MOTIONS

PRIORITY AS NUMBERED				DEBATE	AMENDMENT	
(See Note F)					(N)	
Privileged	1	1	Note E	To fix the time for recess	No (S)	Yes
	2	1	Note E	To fix the time to which to adjourn	No (S)	Yes
	3	3	Note E	To take a recess	No	No
	4	3	Note E	To adjourn. See Cushing, p. 89, note	No	No
	5	5		Question of assembly's privilege	Yes	No
	6	6		Question of personal privilege (G)	Yes	No
Incidental	7	7		Motion for orders of the day	No	No
	8	8		Appeal on point of order (H)	Yes (T)	No
	9	9		Point of order	No	No
	10	10	Note E	Ques'n of considera'n of main motion (I)	No	No
Subsidiary	11	10	Note E	Question of reception of report (I)	No	No
	12	12		To lay on the table (J) (K)	No	No
	13	13	Note E	For previous question (L)	No	No
	14	13	Note E	To refer to committee	No (U)	Yes
	15	13	Note E	To postpone to a day certain	Yes (V)	Yes (Y)
	16	13	Note E	To postpone indefinitely (M)	Yes	No
	17	17		To amend an amendment	Yes (W)	No
	18	18		To amend (N)	Yes	Yes
	19	19		Main motion (O) (P)	Yes	Yes
	20	20		To reconsider (Q)	Yes (X)	No
	21	21		To withdraw motion (R)	No	No

Note A. This table is based on Cushing's Manual, Roberts' Rules, Reed's Rules. The first is standard, the second systematic, the last brilliant. They are authoritative in the order given. Since Roberts' is the most complete, where but one work is to be consulted, I recommend it. The first two are in substantial agreement. Speaker Reed proposed innovations, *e.g.* giving previous question higher priority. See page 200.

Note B. Many important matters are necessarily omitted. Fundamental principles of parliamentary procedure are: If possible, support the Chair. Push business rapidly. Let committees investigate the facts and prepare the business. In times of uncontrollable agitation, adjourn. Individuals ought to be definite in debate and in motions. When legally possible, better do nothing than do something wrong.

Note C. The table omits many motions, such as "to close debate," "to limit debate," "to make a special order," "to suspend the rules," etc. In general, these motions should require a two-thirds vote; and when the assembly is periodical, there should be special rules and by-laws for them. The table omits also appeals on questions of privilege. See Note H.

Note D. By general consent of assembly or unanimous vote, in the presence of the legal or constitutional quorum, any rule of parliamentary law may be suspended. But legal or constitutional provisions must be literally followed. Unless an interpreting tribunal is set up by the laws of the State or of the constitution itself, the majority rules even in questions of constitutional interpretation.

Note E. Motions of equal priority are not in order at all as soon as one has been made, seconded, and stated.

FOR BOARD AND TEACHERS' MEETINGS, ETC.

See NOTES A, B, C, AND D

RECONSIDER- ATION (Q)	SECONDING (6)	WRITING (10)	VOTE (12)	WHEN TO BE OFFERED
Yes (Z)	Must be	Oral is sufficient	Majority	No speaker on floor
Yes (Z)	Must be	Oral is sufficient	Majority	No speaker on floor
No	Must be	Oral is sufficient	Majority	No speaker on floor
No	Must be	Oral is sufficient	Majority	No speaker on floor
Yes	(See Note 7)	Oral	Chairman	Any time
Yes	(See Note 7)	Oral	Chairman	Any time
Yes	(See Note 7)	Oral	One-third	Any time
Yes	(See Note 7)	Writing may	Majority	Any time
(See Note 1)	No second	be required	Chairman	Any time
No	Need not be	Oral	Two-thirds	Any time
Yes	Need not be	Oral	Majority	Any time
(See Note 2)	Must be	Oral is sufficient	Majority	No speaker on floor
No	(See Note 8)	Oral	Two-thirds	No speaker on floor
Yes (3)	Must be	(See Note 11)	Majority	No speaker on floor
Yes	Must be	Should be in writing	Majority	No speaker on floor
Yes	Must be	Oral is sufficient	Majority	No speaker on floor
Yes	Must be	Writing required	Majority	No speaker on floor
Yes	Must be	Writing required	Majority	No speaker on floor
Yes	Must be	Writing required	Majority	No speaker on floor
No (4)	Must be (5)	Writing required	(See Note 13)	Any time
Yes	(See Note 9)	Writing required	Unanimous	Any time

Note F. By priority, it is meant that the prior motion precedes all less "prior" motions, and that, whether made before or after them, it must first be considered.

Note G. The call to order, where a member calls another to order for any parliamentary cause, has same rank and same rules.

Note H. No other point of order or appeal can be entered while either any point or any appeal is pending. Appeals give way to all prior motions. It is good parliamentary practice, in order to stop debate, for the chairman's supporters to move to lay an appeal on the table.

Note I. Cannot be made after debate has begun. Under personal privilege, rise and give notice as soon as motion is made. See Roberts, pages 47 and 182.

Note J. Sometimes called, Lie on the table.

Note K. When seconded, applies both to motion and all amendments irrespective of form and substance of its mover's statement.

Note L. Its mover may direct its application to main motion or any amendment or subsidiary motion.

Note M. Opens debate upon every aspect of motion and all amendments.

Note N. Every amendment to be in order must be germane to the main question. No second amendment, not an amendment of the first, is in order.

Note O. The mover and seconder may accept and incorporate in their motion any amendment, if no one objects.

Note P. No motion is before an assembly until stated by the Chair.

Note Q. A question once decided cannot be brought up in a new form. The reconsideration must begin in the old form of the main question. The priority of this motion is

highly technical. Consult the manuals. The principle in Note Z affects it. Some authorities rank it as privileged next after motion to adjourn. See Roberts, page 10.

- Note R. Can be made by mover only. For its rank, see Roberts, page 35.
- Note S. Debatable when there is no other motion before the house.
- Note T. Not debatable, when indecorum is involved.
- Note U. Debatable as to what instructions and as to which committee.
- Note V. Debatable only as to postponement and to what day.
- Note W. Only the amendment last before the house may be debated.
- Note X. Debatable irrespective of previous question on former consideration; but if the motion to be reconsidered was undebatable, reconsideration itself cannot be debated.
- Note Y. The date, either in the motion or in amendment, must not amount to indefinite postponement.
- Note Z. Cannot be reconsidered when any action has resulted from former vote.
- Note 1. May be withdrawn by its maker, or the chairman may, with or without consulting other members, change his decision.
- Note 2. When the vote was to lay on the table, move to take from the table.
- Note 3. After committee has taken papers or begun action, cannot be reconsidered. Move to discharge the committee.
- Note 4. Unless on former reconsideration changes were made.
- Note 5. Must be moved and seconded by members on the side that won. A special rule usually provides for reconsideration only on same or next day. This motion is apt to be made too frequently. A member may introduce or reintroduce a motion as often as he so chooses; but he can withdraw it only by general consent.
- Note 6. Seconding is not necessary when there is no other business before the house.
- Note 7. The very substance of this motion is the effort to preserve rights. Hence, one alone is expected to present the matter to the assembly, sometimes without formal motion. Appeals on motions 5, 6, and 8 must be seconded, unless the chairman chooses to put the appeal without such second. Often, the chairman asks informally for opinions of various members, and he may permit discussion before the seconding. On vote on appeal, a majority or a tie sustains the chairman. Special rules often provide that one member alone may secure his rights under personal privilege, irrespective of the will of others. See Cushing, page 42.
- Note 8. No attention should be paid to the call unless made by several members or regularly moved and seconded.
- Note 9. The seconder must also withdraw his second.
- Note 10. An assembly should make its business formal in proportion as that business is important.
- Note 11. The instructions should be written.
- Note 12. Special rules often modify these provisions very considerably. Vote means passing or adopting a motion. Vote may be taken only when a quorum is present. Majority, etc., means of the quorum.
- Note 13. To reconsider a vote requiring two-thirds of the assembly, a two-thirds vote is required. This motion can be made even during other business, but cannot be taken up until all business prior in time has been disposed of.

APPENDIX V.—YEARLY ALLOWANCES FOR BOOKS, SUPPLIES, Etc.

As with a household of highly educated people, so with a school, the tendency is steadily to increase the demand for funds to meet increasing needs. To desire things and services is to live in civilization. The following standard of allowances for books, general supplies, manual training, etc., is a reasonable minimum where a community means to have good schools. With experience, much larger sums can be well spent; and education will be correspondingly improved.

HIGH SCHOOL

Books (per pupil)	\$4.00	Stationery	\$1.00
Manual training	10.00	Incidentals	1.00
For science apparatus annually per class of 24 pupils			250.00
For reference books per class of 24 pupils			50.00

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

<i>Grammar Grades.</i> —Books (per pupil)	\$2.00	Stationery	\$0.75
Manual training	4.00	Incidentals50
<i>Primary Grades.</i> —Books (per pupil)	1.00	Stationery	0.50
Manual training	2.00	Incidentals25
<i>Kindergarten.</i> —All supplies per pupil			1.00

General

For reference books per class of 42 pupils	\$20.00
For library (class) per class	25.00

EVENING SCHOOL

All books and supplies per class of 24 pupils, excepting science and manual training \$50.00

For evening lectures, \$10 to \$25 may be allowed for the lecturer, \$5 to \$10 for his expenses (average), and \$5 for lantern operator. In a public lecture course, most of the lectures should be illustrated.

The foregoing allowances do not include the stereopticon lantern and slides for every school, and at least two pianos in every elementary school, one for the assembly room and one for the kindergarten.

APPENDIX VI.—HIGH SCHOOL ELECTIVES

Counts per Term per ½ Year.	REQUIRED FOR FOUR YEARS' COURSE	Periods per Week	Counts per Term per ½ Year	REQUIRED FOR THREE YEARS' COURSE	Periods per Week	Counts per Term per ½ Year	ELECTIVE	Periods per Week
3	English	4	3	English	4	3	For either Course:	
½	Current events (required debates) and	2	½	Current Events and Elocution, ½ year together	2	3	Zoology, ½ year and	4
½	Elocution, ½ year together	2	1	Drawing, or	2	3	Physical Geography, ½ year and	4
1	Drawing, or	2	2	Music	2	3	Botany, ½ year	4
1	Music	2	1	Physical Training	2	3	For Regular Course:	
1	Physical Training, or	2	3	Business Practice	5	3	Modern History, ½ year	4
1	Manual Training	2	5	Algebra, or	5	3	Civil Government, ½ year	4
5	Latin, or	5	3	Modern History, ½ year	4	4	For Commercial Course:	
4	German	4	3	Civil Government, ½ year	4	4	German	4
5	Algebra	5	3			5	Stenography	5
<hr/>								
3	English	4	3	English	4	3	For either Course:	
½	Current Events and Elocution, ½ year	2	½	Current Events and Elocution, ½ year	2	3	English History	4
½	Drawing, or	2	1	Drawing, or	2	3	Biology, ½ year, followed by	4
1	Music	2	1	Music	2	3	Physiology, ½ year	4
1	Physical Training, or	2	1	Physical Training	2	5	For Regular Course:	
1	Manual Training	2	3	Business Practice	5	3	Greek	5
5	Latin (Caesar), or	5	2	Spelling and Penmanship, ½ year	4	3	American History, ½ year	4
3	German (various authors)	3	3	Commercial Arithmetic, ½ year	4	3	For Commercial Course:	
5	Plane Geometry	5	3	American History, since 1776 ½ year, and	4	3	German (various authors)	3
			3	Commercial Geography, ½ year	4	5	Plain Geometry	5
						1	Stenography	5
							Typewriting	2

FIRST YEAR

SECOND YEAR

Counts per Term per ½ Year	REQUIRED FOR FOUR YEARS' COURSE	Periods per Week	Counts per Term per ½ Year	REQUIRED FOR THREE YEARS' COURSE	Periods per Week	Counts per Term per ½ Year	ELECTIVE	Periods per Week
3	American Literature . . .	4	3	American Literature . . .	4	5	For either Course:	5
1 ½	Currents Events and . . .	2	1 ½	Current Events and . . .	2	5	Higher Algebra . . .	5
1 ½	Elocution, ½ year . . .	2	1 ½	Elocution . . .	2	3	Physics . . .	5
1	Drawing, or . . .	2	1	Drawing, or . . .	2	3	General History . . .	4
1	Music . . .	2	1	Music . . .	2	3	For Regular Course:	
1	Physical Training, or . . .	2	1	Physical Training . . .	2	5	Greek (Xenophon) . . .	5
1	Manual Training, or . . .	2	3	Theory of Accounts, ½ year . . .	5	5	French . . .	5
1	Latin (Vergil) or . . .	5	3	History of Commerce, ½ year . . .	5	3	Political Economy ½ year . . .	4
5	German (Goethe and . . .	5	3	Political Economy, ½ year . . .	4	5	For Commercial Course:	
3	other authors) . . .	3	3	Commercial Law, ½ year . . .	4	5	Stenography Review . . .	5
NONE OFFERED								
3	English Literature . . .	4	5	Graduates of the Commercial Course		5	Solid Geometry, ½ year . . .	5
1 ½	Current Events and . . .	2	5	in order to become graduates of the		5	Trigonometry, ½ year . . .	5
1 ½	Oration . . .	2	5	Regular Course must secure at least 42		5	Review of Mathematics, ½ year . . .	5
1	Drawing, or . . .	2	3	Language counts in the 240 counts.		3	Chemistry . . .	5
1	Physical Training, or . . .	2	3	The third year will be offered when re-		3	Astronomy, ½ year . . .	4
1	Manual Training . . .	2	3	quested by a sufficient number of		3	Geology, ½ year . . .	4
5	Latin (Cicero), or . . .	5	5	students.		5	Greek (Homer) . . .	5
3	German (Schiller and . . .	3	5			5	French (various authors) . . .	5
	other authors) . . .	3	3			5	Greek History, ½ year . . .	4
						3	Roman History, ½ year . . .	4
						3	Music . . .	1
						1	Drawing . . .	1
						1	Applied Chemistry . . .	2

240 Counts are required for a diploma in the Regular Course.
180 Counts are required for a diploma in the Commercial Course; 120 for a certificate.

Any Elective belonging to a lower year may be taken in a higher year.
Chemistry may be taken in the third year, or even in the second year, by those who have previously made 12 counts in Science.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

GRADE 1										Time per week in minutes
English	500
Reading and Phonic Drill	200
Composition	100
Spelling	100
Writing	100
Number	100
Nature Study	100
Manual Training and Art	100
Music	40
Story-telling (History, Biography, Ethics, etc.)	80
Morning Exercises	75
Physical Training	50
Intermissions	75
Unassigned Time	130
20 Minute Periods										1250

	Counts	Time per week in minutes
English	4	340
Reading I-2		125
Language		50
Composition I-2		50
Spelling ($\frac{1}{2}$ periods)		65
Handwriting		50
Arithmetic	3	125
Nature Study, including Physiology and Hygiene		75
Manual Training, including Art	I	275
Music		25
History		50
Geography		100

GRADE IV -- *Continued*

	Time per week in minutes
Morning Exercises (including daily 10 minutes' singing)	75
Assisted Study, chiefly Arithmetic and Composition	75
Physical Training	50
Intermissions	75
Unassigned Time	85
25 Minute Periods	1350

Promotion is based upon the studies with counts. See *rule to find the average*, Appendix XIV.

GRADE VIII

	Counts	Time per week in minutes
English	5	315
Reading. Home Study I-10		90
Composition. Home Study I-5		30
Spelling. Home Study I-10		45
Handwriting I-10		30
Grammar I-2		120
Mathematics	3	180
Arithmetic I-2		90
Algebra I-3		60
Constructive Geometry I-6		30
Science, including Physiology		30
Manual Training, including Art	I	180
Music		30
History. Home Study	I	90
Geography. Home Study	I	90
Morning Assembly, including Scripture Reading and Rhetoricals		75
Study		150
Physical Training		50
Intermissions		75
Unassigned Time (chiefly study)		160
		1425

This means net time, *i.e.*, that each child has at least that number of minutes of recitation.

Principals may assign time as they see fit, but are in no wise to diminish the assigned time in any subject.

HIGH SCHOOL

GRADE X							Counts per Term	Time per week in minutes
English Rhetoric and Composition	3	160
Rhetoricals	1	80
Plane Geometry	5	200
Business Practice	5	200
Biology $\frac{2}{3}$ year and Physiology $\frac{1}{3}$	3	160
American History $\frac{2}{3}$ year and Commercial Geography $\frac{1}{3}$	4	160
English History	4	160
Spelling and Penmanship $\frac{1}{2}$ and Commercial Arithmetic $\frac{1}{2}$	4	160
Shorthand and Typewriting	5	200
Latin (Cæsar) and Composition	5	200
Greek Grammar and Composition	5	200
German (various authors) Conversation and Composition	3	120
Music	1	80
Drawing	1	80
Wood Working	1	80
Sewing $\frac{1}{2}$ year and Cooking $\frac{1}{2}$	1	80
Physical Training	1	80

Black Face — Constants required of all

Italic — Optional alternatives

Roman — Electives

NOTES TO APPENDIX VIII, OPPOSITE PAGE

The time allotted to each subject is recitation time for each pupil in that subject; when the class recites in two divisions, the teacher should give twice the time indicated to recitations in each subject.

NUMBER OF DIVISIONS IN A CLASS. — For drawing, music, Nature study, physiology, physical culture, and writing, one division will usually be sufficient in any grade; for history and geography in the primary, and for language, grammar, and spelling in the grammar grades, one division; for all other subjects, two, sometimes three, divisions will usually be desirable in the primary grades, while in the grammar grades, there may be one or two divisions, depending upon the size and grading of the class.

ORDER OF EXERCISES. — The more difficult subjects should come before the last half hour in the morning. Alternate subjects requiring chiefly skill with those requiring thought. Neither writing nor drawing should immediately follow physical exercise, either in or out of the schoolroom. Physical exercises should be short and spirited, and should be given whenever the fatigue or restlessness of the pupils seems to require it. Music may profitably follow the opening exercises.

Based on Passaic Public Schools, F. E. SPAULDING, *Superintendent*.

APPENDIX VIII.—TIME ASSIGNMENT, ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

APPENDIX VIII

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GENERAL PROGRAM												REPORT OF ACCOMPLISHMENT				Minutes per Week
GRADES	SUBJECTS	I		II		III		IV		V		VI		VII		Recitations per Week
		Recitations per Week	Minutes	Recitations per Week	Minutes	Recitations per Week	Minutes	Recitations per Week	Minutes	Recitations per Week	Minutes	Recitations per Week	Minutes	Recitations per Week	Minutes	
	Arithmetic.	5	75	5	75	5	100	5	125	5	150	5	175	5	175	
	Reading	10	200	10	200	5	150	5	150	5	150	5	150	5	150	
	Language and Grammar	5	75	5	75	5	100	5	125	5	125	5	125	5	150	
	History	5	50	5	50	5	75	5	75	5	100	5	125	5	150	
	Geography					2	40	5	125	5	125	5	125	5	125	
	Phonics	30	30	5	30	5	50	5	50	5	50	5	50	5	50	
	Spelling	5	50	5	50	5	75	5	100	5	100	3	60	3	60	
	Writing	5	75	5	75	5	75	5	100	5	100	3	60	3	60	
	Nature Study, Geography, and Physiology	5	60	5	60	3	60	2	60	2	60	2	60	2	60	
	Drawing	5	75	3	75	3	75	3	75	2	75	2	75	2	75	
	Music	5	75	5	75	5	75	5	75	5	75	5	75	5	75	
	Cooking, Sewing, Wood Working, and Domestic Science					1	30	1	30	1	60	1	75	1	120	
	Opening Exercises	5	50	5	50	5	50	5	25	5	25	5	25	5	25	
	Physical Exercises		45		45		45		45		45		45		45	
	Recesses	10	125	10	125	10	125	5	75	5	75	5	75	5	75	
	Totals	70	985	68	985	58	1020	55	1105	54	1155	52	1105	52	1215	
	Study Periods	515		515		480		395		345		335		285		
	Home Work Daily					30 to 45		45 to 60		60 to 75		75 to 90		90 to 120		

APPENDIX IX. — DAILY PROGRAMS

A. GRADE PROGRAMS

KINDERGARTEN

9.00- 9.40	Morning Circle.
9.40- 9.50	Marching.
9.50-10.00	Recess.
10.00-10.30	Gift.
10.30-11.00	Games.
1.15- 1.50	Occupation.
1.50- 2.15	Good-by Circle.

GRADE II

9.00- 9.20	Opening Exercises.	
9.20- 9.45	Arithmetic.	
9.45-10.10	Reading.	
10.10-10.30	Spelling.	
10.45-11.00	Oral Arithmetic.	
11.00-11.20	Nature Study.	
11.20-11.45	Language and Composition.	Friday, Manual Training.
1.15- 1.35	Writing.	
1.35- 1.55	Music.	
1.55- 2.20	Reading.	
2.20- 2.30	Physical Training.	
2.30- 3.00	Drawing.	Thursday, Manual Training.
	Composition.	Friday,

GRADE IV

9.00- 9.15	Opening Exercises.	
9.15- 9.45	Arithmetic.	
9.45-10.00	Nature.	
10.00-10.30	Reading.	
10.45-11.20	Language and Composition.	} Thursday, Manual Training.
11.20-11.45	Geography.	
1.15- 1.30	Oral Arithmetic	
1.30- 1.45	Spelling.	
1.45- 2.05	Writing.	
2.05- 2.15	Physical Training.	
2.15- 2.30	Music.	
2.30- 3.00	Drawing.	Tuesday and Friday, History.

B. DEPARTMENTAL PROGRAM

(Two regular teachers for four grades, V, VI, VII, VIII, with 60 to 90 pupils)

GRADES V AND VI

MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
9.15- 9.30 Spelling 9.30- 9.45 Writing 9.45-10.30 Geog. V & VI 10.30-11.00 Arith. V 11.00-11.30 Arith. VI 1.30-12.00 Hist. VI 1.15- 2.00 Drawing 2.00- 2.15 Phys. Trng. 2.15- 3.00 Gram. V & VI	9.15- 9.30 Spelling 9.30- 9.45 Writing 9.45-10.05 Geog. V 10.05-10.30 Hist. VI 10.30-11.30 Arith. V & VI 11.30-12.00 Science 1.15- 2.00 Drawing 2.00- 2.15 Phys. Trng. 2.15- 3.00 Gram. V & VI	9.10-10.30 Manual Work 10.30-11.00 Hist. V 11.00-11.30 Geog. VI 11.30-12.00 Geog. VII 1.15- 2.00 Arith. V & VI 2.00- 2.30 Music 2.30- 3.00 Reading V	9.10- 9.30 Spelling 9.30-10.00 Hist. V 10.00-10.30 Hist. VI 10.30-11.00 Arith. V 11.00-11.30 Arith. VI 11.30 12.00 Comp. V & VI 1.15- 1.50 Geog. V 1.50- 2.30 Geog. VI 2.20- 2.30 Phys. Trng. 2.30- 3.00 Reading VI	9.30-10.00 Geog. V 10.00-10.30 Geog. VI 10.30-11.00 Arith. V 11.00-11.30 Arith. VI 11.30-12.00 Gram. V 1.15- 2.00 Hist. V & VI 2.00- 2.10 Phys. Trng. 2.10- 2.30 Reading V 2.30- 3.00 Reading VI

GRADES VII AND VIII

MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
9.15- 9.30 Writing 9.30-10.00 Arith. VII 10.00-10.30 Arith. VIII 10.30-11.30 Read. VII & VIII 11.30-12.00 Physiology VIII 1.15- 1.30 Spelling 1.30- 2.00 Gram. VII 2.00- 2.15 Phys. Trng. 2.15- 3.00 Drawing	9.15- 9.30 Writing 9.30-10.00 Arith. VII 10.00-10.30 Arith. VIII 10.30-11.15 Hist. VII & VIII 11.15-12.00 Geog. VII & VIII 1.15- 1.30 Spelling 1.30- 2.00 Comp. VII & VIII 2.00- 2.15 Phys. Trng. 2.15- 3.00 Drawing	9.10- 9.35 Arith. VII 9.35-10.05 Arith. VIII 10.05-10.30 Gram. VIII 10.30-12.00 Manual Work 1.15- 2.00 Hist. VII & VIII 2.00- 2.30 Geog. VII 2.30- 3.00 Music	9.10- 9.30 Spelling 9.30-10.00 Arith. VII 10.00-10.30 Alg. VIII 10.30-11.15 Hist. VII & VIII 11.15-12.00 Geog. VII & VIII 1.15- 1.50 Gram. VII 1.50- 2.20 Gram. VIII 2.20- 2.30 Phys. Trng. 2.30- 3.00 Physiology VIII	9.30-10.00 Arith. VII 10.00-10.30 Alg. VIII 10.30-11.15 Geog. VII & VIII 11.15-12.00 Hist. VII & VIII 1.15- 2.00 Geom. VII & VIII 2.00- 2.10 Phys. Trng. 2.10- 2.30 Gram. VII 2.30- 3.00 Gram. VIII

APPENDIX X.—CONSPECTUS OF MINUTES OF TIME

			NOTE	TOTAL OFFERED	
GRADE I.	Art Construction }		1	170 minutes.	
GRADE II.	Art Construction }		1	170 minutes.	
GRADE III.	Art Construction }		1	170 minutes.	
GRADE IV.	Art		1	105 minutes.	
	Knife Work	}	2	75 minutes.	
	Scroll Sawing		3	30 minutes.	
	Sewing		4	45 minutes.	
	Weaving			255 minutes.	
GRADE V.	Art		1	90 minutes.	
	Knife Work		2	60 minutes.	
	Basketry	}	4	60 minutes.	
	Weaving		5	60 minutes.	
	Sewing			270 minutes.	
GRADE VI.	Art		1	80 minutes.	
	Knife Work	}	2	120 minutes.	
	Bent Iron		4	120 minutes.	$\frac{1}{2}$ year.
	Basketry	}	3	120 minutes.	$\frac{1}{2}$ year.
	Weaving			440 minutes.	
	Sewing				
GRADE VII.	Art		1	80 minutes.	
	Bent Iron	}	2	120 minutes.	
	Knife Work		4	120 minutes.	$\frac{1}{2}$ year.
	Basketry	}	3	120 minutes.	$\frac{1}{2}$ year.
	Weaving			440 minutes.	
	Sewing				

Total, 57 hours of instruction per week offered by the Department,

MANUAL TRAINING DEPARTMENT

PER WEEK

		NOTE	TOTAL OFFERED	
GRADE VIII.	Art	1	80 minutes.	
	Bench Work	2	120 minutes.	
	Basketry	}	120 minutes.	
	Weaving			
	Household	}	30 minutes.	
	Hygiene, etc.			
			350 minutes.	
GRADE IX.	Art		90 minutes.	
	Bench Work		90 minutes.	
	Sewing		90 minutes.	$\frac{1}{2}$ year.
	Cooking		90 minutes.	$\frac{1}{2}$ year.
			270 minutes.	
GRADE X.	Art		90 minutes.	
	Wood Working		90 minutes.	
	Cooking		90 minutes.	$\frac{1}{2}$ year.
	Sewing		90 minutes.	$\frac{1}{2}$ year.
			270 minutes.	
GRADE XI.	Art		90 minutes.	
	Iron Forging	}	90 minutes.	
	Lathe Work in Metal			
	Dressmaking	}	90 minutes.	
	Millinery			
	Applied Chemistry	}	90 minutes.	
			360 minutes.	
GRADE XII.	Art		90 minutes.	
	Iron Construction		90 minutes.	
	Dressmaking,	Grade XI.		
	Applied Chemistry,			
			180 minutes.	

1. Required of both boys and girls.
2. Required of boys. Elective for girls.
3. Required of girls.
4. Required of girls. Elective for boys.
5. Elective for girls.

APPENDIX XI. — TAXATION

THE problem of taxation is to-day the greatest and most difficult problem before the American people. This is naturally so in a characteristically industrial civilization whose chief concern is wealth rather than religion or culture or nationality or loyalty to superiors and kindness to inferiors. Our judges are not priests living upon gifts, nor are they manorial lords living upon rents and services. Our executives and our legislators (theoretically) perform their work for salaries, — that is, for income of wealth, commuted in terms of money. The public employee, whether governor or clerk, desires money for government enterprises or for personal expenditure; the private citizen desires to keep his wealth. The present taxation is the result of this struggle. At present, the private citizen is decidedly the winner. Personal taxes have become almost an absurdity. In 1904, New York City levied upon nearly \$7,000,000,000 of personal property, of which all but \$700,000,000 was "sworn off" within two days after the publication of the list. The problem of how to get enough money for the schools depends upon the solution of the problem of taxation. In the text, I advocate State subsidies to local schools based upon number of teachers, days' attendance of pupils, and the installation of liberal courses of study. To secure such State funds, resort may be had to —

1. Inheritance taxes, bearing most heavily upon the large estates and upon collateral heirs.
2. Corporation taxes, upon all corporations, and largest upon public franchise monopolies.

To secure more liberal local funds, I know of no objection valid in sound economics to taxing ground rent far more heavily than it is taxed now. It is a mere personal opinion, based, however, upon some special university studies in America and Europe, that our land-ownership system is seriously defective in that it encourages monopoly and tenancy. But I am not yet ready to accept the proposition not to levy any tax upon buildings, which certainly need police and fire protection at public cost.

The present system exempts most property from taxation; that is, while it protects all property holders, it charges the expense to a few. But this is not the worst feature. It starves public enterprises, especially education.¹ Incidentally, by its attendant feature of bond issues, it is building up a class of economic aristocrats whose influence in American politics is dangerous to the general welfare. The borrower is ever servant to the lender, though the service be indirect and disguised.

¹ It may be that wealthy philanthropists will eventually come to the rescue by donating buildings and thus leave the public taxation to carry salaries (as some are now doing); or that they may create endowments of lands or of stocks and bonds to pay salaries (a better course, educationally). In these times of economic feudalism, education seems to need the same support that religion had in the times of political and military feudalism.

APPENDIX XII. — RESIGNATIONS

THE general principle governing resignations is that the superintendent should resign at the end of his year or term if he believes that another man, available for the salary and for the conditions of the position, can do better work for the schools than he himself can do. Such times are —

1. When the incumbent is suffering from poor health.
2. When he has aroused such serious and extensive personal antagonisms in the board and in the community as to be unable to win public approval of his measures.
3. When the board and the community are calling for a degree of school betterment that is beyond his wisdom to provide.
4. When he himself has taken such a dislike to service in the particular community, whatever be the cause, as seriously to impair his efficiency.

The controlling principle in all educational service is, as stated in the text, to make a life work in one community, and not to leave that community without cause. The exceptions are those which fall under the above general principle of resignations, and two others, — resignations to accept very much more desirable positions, and resignations (when leave of absence cannot be secured) to pursue advanced studies. The limitation of the general principle should be carefully observed: no superintendent whose heart is in his work will resign when he foresees that his community desires a less efficient man than he himself is. In such a case, he will oppose any attempt to force his resignation or to discharge him.

A board is never justified in forcing a resignation. It is, however, justified in discharging a superintendent without notice for gross personal immorality or for dishonesty. And upon three months' notice, prior to the end of the school year, when the term is from year to year, or prior to the end of a term of years, it may serve notice of intention not to reëlect for publicly reported reasons. An intelligent body of men will know that the larger the school system the more important is experience in it. An able man needs at least one or two years to learn the facts and to adjust himself to the conditions of a school system with several thousand pupils. Sometimes, a new man is required because he does not know and will not accept the conditions, but will promptly set about creating an essentially different school situation.¹

¹ The question whether to promote to the vacant superintendency a principal or teacher already in the schools does not often arise in cities of less than fifty thousand people. When such a principal has been in the system but a few years, at most two or three, and has shown very marked ability, the promotion may be wise. But to promote one who for ten or twenty years has been content with a subordinate position is usually unwise; it arouses jealousies, it insures routinism in the schools, and it prevents the community from securing the services of an ambitious man with natural talents for administration and supervision.

APPENDIX XIII.—MONTHLY REPORT OF
FINANCES

SCHOOL DEPARTMENT

City of-----

Computed to-----190

Presented to Board-----190

ACCOUNT	APPRO- PRIATION	EX- PENDED TO DATE	BALANCE TO DATE	OUT- STANDING BILLS & ORDERS	FIXED CHARGES TO Nov. 30	TOTAL	BALANCE Nov. 30
Salaries :							
Day Teachers							
Evening Teachers							
Manual Training							
Superintendent and Supervisors							
Clerks							
Attend. Officers							
Janitors and Help							
Reform School							
Furniture							
Text-books							
Other Educational Supplies							
Building Supplies							
Rentals							
Printing and Adver- tising							
Cartage							
Transportation of Pupils							
Office Expense							
Livery							
Unclassified							
Total							
Receipts							
Total							
Balance							

Based upon report form of LOUIS P. NASH, *Superintendent of Schools,*
Holyoke.

APPENDIX XIV.—CONDUCT—ATTENDANCE— STUDIES

----- PUBLIC SCHOOLS

This Report is issued six times in a School Year and is the

Record of-----

for-----*Grade, in*-----*School*

Daily Work counts equally with Written Reviews in the determination of promotion.

An average of 75 per cent in all studies, taken together, must be attained. Failure to attain an average of 50 per cent in either English or Mathematics, or of 70 per cent in both together, prevents regular promotion, irrespective of general average in all subjects together.

Any pupil failing in a Grade or in a subject may be promoted upon passing a Principal's examination in the subjects of the Grade or in the deficient subject with an average of at least 75 per cent in each of the subjects.

In the High School, an average of 70 per cent must be attained in each completed subject, other than English or Mathematics, before it may be added to the total number of counts required for graduation.

A pupil repeating a half-year or a year, upon making an average of 80 per cent in all studies and of 75 per cent in English and Mathematics, taken together, is entitled to special promotion on trial.

Unexcused absences are marked as total failures in Daily Work.

All excused absences may be made up.

Classes advance from one Grade to the next whenever ready.

To find the Average: Multiply the average in each subject by the number of counts, add the products, and divide their sum by the total number of counts for all subjects weekly.

REMARKS BY TEACHER:

-----Class Teacher

Final Result-----

-----Principal

[FRONT OF REPORT]

Name _____

SUBJECTS	No. OF COUNTS IN AVERAGE	No. REC- TATIONS WEEKLY	FIRST REPORT			SECOND REPORT			THIRD REPORT		
			DW	WR	Av	DW	WR	Av	DW	WR	Av
English . . .											
Arithmetic . .											
Algebra . . .											
Geometry . . .											
Average . .											
Reading . . .											
Spelling . . .											
Nature . . .											
History . . .											
Geography . .											
Physiology . .											
Biology . . .											
Physics . . .											
Chemistry . .											
Shorthand . .											
Bookkeeping .											
Latin											
Greek											
German											
French											
Drawing . . .											
Man. Training .											
Declamation .											
Essay											
Handwriting .											
Music											
Current Events											
Phys. Training .											
Kindergarten .											
Average . .											
Conduct . . .											
No. times tardy											
$\frac{1}{2}$ days absent .											
Gen'l Qualities of Sch. Work and Behavior											

For the better information of parents, under last heading, teachers may use such adjectives as these, viz.: Neat; untidy; careless; accurate; faithful; irregular; courteous; discourteous. Where pupils are particularly defective in certain topics, comments should be entered in detail. In the absence of comments, parents may infer that there is no special deficiency.

APPENDIX XIV

399

(Duplicate in ledger or card record.)

FOURTH REPORT			FIFTH REPORT			SIXTH REPORT			AVERAGE AT PRO- MOTION	COMMENTS BY TEACHER
DW	WR	Av	DW	WR	Av	DW	WR	Av		
										Average, English and Mathematics
										Final Average

Kindergarten to Grade II, inclusive: Marks, poor, fair, good, very good. Grades III to XII, inclusive: Marks in per cents.

NOTE.—By seeing the names of the subjects in the higher grades, the interest of pupils and parents is aroused and the school-life is prolonged.

SCHOOL YEAR 1904-1905

HOURS OF HOME STUDY: ASSIGNMENT BY RULES

Kindergarten and First Grade	Occasional half hour
Second and Third Grades	One half hour daily
Fourth and Fifth Grades	One hour daily
Sixth and Seventh Grades	One to one and a half hours
Eighth Grade	One and a half to two hours
High School Grades	Two to four hours
Evening School	Two half hours weekly

Parents whose children study more or less than these assignments will kindly INQUIRE INTO THE MATTER through the Teachers or Principals or notify the Superintendent in writing.

Only such HOME WORK is to be assigned in which the INSTRUCTION AND EXPLANATION by the teacher have been COMPLETE. Parents who believe that principles have not been fully explained will KINDLY INQUIRE INTO THE MATTER.

SIGNATURE BY PARENT:

First Report.....

Second Report.....

Third Report.....

Kindly read ALL printed and written memoranda

Fourth Report.....

Fifth Report.....

Sixth Report.....

Kindly read ALL printed and written memoranda

COMMENTS BY PARENT:

[BACK OF REPORT]

APPENDIX XV.—RANK OF PUPILS

<i>Pupil</i> -----										Average of all class averages	No. pupils on roll in class	Rank
<i>School</i> -----					<i>Grade</i> -----							
<i>Teacher</i> -----												
First Report			
Second Report			
Third Report			
Fourth Report			
Fifth Report			
Sixth Report			
Final Average			

The occasional use of this form—for a special class or a special pupil—is valuable as a corrective of false views as to a pupil's relative excellence or deficiency. It may be used either to discourage or to forward a request for special promotion. To issue such reports monthly to all pupils is unwise.

APPENDIX XVI.—DAILY ATTENDANCE RECORD

To be sent to Principal's Office at 3 P.M.

ABSENT :

A.M.

P.M.

CONSECUTIVE NO.
SESSIONS

-----	-----	-----
-----	-----	-----
-----	-----	-----
-----	-----	-----

TARDY

A.M.

P.M.

-----	-----	-----
-----	-----	-----

-----Teacher

Room No.----- School No.-----

REMARKS :

Date-----

APPENDIX XVII.—TEACHERS' MONTHLY REPORTS

EVERY FOUR WEEKS

-----PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Attendance Report, Class-----, Grade-----, for month ending-----

Grade	Division	No. Half-day absences	No. Cases Tardy	Whole No. Registered to Date	No. boys on Roll this Date	No. Girls on Roll this Date	Whole No. Enrolled this Date	No. Enrolled last Report	No. Discharged	No. Admitted	Average No. on Roll during Month	Average Daily Attendance	Percentage of Att. on Av. Enrollment	Total Days' Attendance	Whole No. Enrolled to Date
...
...
...
...

Remarks:

Needs:

-----TEACHER.

This Report should be sent to the Principal by 3.30 P.M. Friday.

APPENDIX XVIII.—PRINCIPALS' MONTHLY REPORTS

EVERY FOUR WEEKS

PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Attendance Report, School No-----, for month ending-----

[illegible]

TOTAL-----

Remarks:

Truants

Dates

Children in School District 7 to 15

not attending any school.

Needs:

The report is sent to the Superintendent of Schools

by 3 P.M. every 4th Monday.

Important matters transacted, including visits of board members, teachers from other schools, repairs, meetings, etc.

Children left school, with causes.
Children transferred to other schools.

PRINCIPAL.

APPENDIX XIX.—ANNUAL REPORT OF PRINCIPAL TO SUPERINTENDENT

Statistical Report of-----*School for the*
Year ending-----*190*
 -----*Principal.*

	Boys	Girls	TOTAL
Number of pupils enrolled-----			
Number over fifteen -----			
Number under five -----			
Number between seven and fourteen-----			
Average membership-----			
Average attendance -----			
Aggreggate number of days of attendance -----			
Per cent of attendance-----			
Number of absentees-----			
Number of days of absence-----			
Number of pupils tardy -----			
Number of tardinesses-----			
Number neither absent nor tardy-----			
Number of truants-----			
Number of days of truancy -----			
Number who have received corporal punishment ¹ -----			
Number of corporal punishments-----			
Number of teachers absent-----			
Number of days of such absence-----			
Number of teachers tardy-----			
Number of such tardinesses-----			
Number of days of actual session-----			
Number of legal holidays-----			
Days closed for other reasons-----			
Number of rooms-----			
Number of sittings-----			
Number of teachers (male-----female-----)			

File at the office of the Superintendent of Schools on or before July first, together with the last sheet from all registers. (Form based on Holyoke, Mass.)

¹ It is important to know this wherever it is legal, but no community permitting such punishment (save in a reform school) can properly consider itself possessed of competent teachers and managed in a competent manner. See pp. 301-302.

APPENDIX XX.—RULES AND REGULATIONS

The Anglo-Saxon principle is never to make a law until it is needed. In small school systems, the less the number of the various rules and regulations that are established by resolution of the board, the better. As necessity arises, one and another may be passed, amended, or repealed.

When revision and codification become desirable (or are ordered by the board), the several principles to be followed by the superintendent are as follows, namely:—

1. To have the new rules and regulations as few, as direct, as true to common sense and to modern science, and as simple as possible.
2. To secure, in all educational matters, adequate, formal, public, and legal recognition of the authority of the superintendent, the principals, the supervisors, and the teachers.
3. To secure relief for superintendent and teachers, as far as possible, from all purely business matters.
4. To advance the cause of liberal education.
5. Conversely, to resist all encroachments of the legislative upon the executive department, to resist all efforts to make the educators clerks, and to resist excessively detailed mechanization of the school system.

Many rules and regulations (unless dead letter) in a small school system are symptomatic of serious faults.

APPENDIX XXI.—REPORT OF SUSPENSION OF A PUPIL TO THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

To _____, Secretary of the Board of Education of the _____
of _____, of the County of _____:

SIR—You are hereby notified that I have this day suspended from ^{name or}
school _____, for [*here state the cause for suspension*]. ^{number}

Dated this _____ day of _____, 190--.

Principal.

The State school law usually requires every suspension to be reported to the board of education. A similar notice may go to the parent or guardian. With reform schools and ungraded classes, expulsion (outlawing) becomes unnecessary.

APPENDIX XXII. — DUTIES OF SECRETARY OR CLERK

1. To prepare and deliver notices for meetings of the board of education.
2. To act as corresponding and recording secretary of the board of education.
 - (a) To keep on file all communications as ordered by the board.
 - (b) To record, in a book provided for that purpose, all the proceedings of board of education meetings and district meetings.
 - (c) To write and to receive all correspondence as ordered or in the course of the ordinary business of the board.
3. To keep an account of the school finances of the municipality, and to report at each regular meeting of the board of education.
4. To pay out all moneys by issuing orders on the custodian of school moneys.
5. To make a financial report to all superior county, state, and national officers.
6. To make a report of the transactions of the board for the year to the annual meeting of the town or of the city council or of the board of school estimate for the election of members of the board of education.
7. To prepare and forward the annual report to the designated superior officer.
(In some States)
8. To prepare and post
 - Notices for annual district meeting,
 - Notices for special district meeting.
9. To notify State or county superintendent and city or township assessor of the amount of district school tax ordered.
10. To take an inventory annually of all school property.
11. To take affidavits (without fee) in all matters of school business.
12. To attest signature of president (or chairman) of the board upon contracts, notes, diplomas, etc., and to certify copies of board resolutions, etc.

APPENDIX XXIII. — FORM FOR NOTICE FOR A MEETING OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

To _____ :

You are hereby notified that there will be a meeting of the Board of Education of the _____ of _____, on _____ evening, _____, 190—, at _____ o'clock, in the schoolhouse.

[Date.]

_____,
Secretary or Clerk.

APPENDIX XXIV.—TEACHER'S CONTRACT

It is hereby agreed by and between the Board of Education of _____, in the County of _____ and _____, that said Board of Education, by resolution duly passed at a meeting regularly called and constituted, has employed and does engage and employ the said _____ to teach in the _____ public school, under the control of said Board of Education, for the term of _____ year _____ from the _____ day of _____, 190____, at the salary of \$ _____ to be paid in _____ equal monthly installments; that the said _____ shall begin teaching on the _____ day of _____, 190____; that the said _____ holds a valid _____ grade _____ certificate to teach now in full force and effect, or will procure such certificate before the date _____ he shall begin teaching, and that the date when said certificate will expire is the _____ day of _____, 190____.

It is hereby agreed that either of said parties to this contract may, at any time, terminate said contract and the employment aforesaid, by giving to the other party [here insert length of time] notice in writing of its election to so terminate the same.

The said _____ hereby accepts the employment aforesaid and undertakes that _____ he will faithfully do and perform _____ duty under the employment aforesaid, and will observe and enforce the rules prescribed for the government of the School by the Board of Education and the Superintendent, or Principal, or Supervising Principal.

Dated this _____ day of _____, 190____

*President of the Board of Education
 of the School District of
 County of*

Teacher.

Secretary.

One copy of the contract is to be filed with the superintendent, one copy with the secretary or clerk, and one copy retained by the teacher.

APPENDIX XXV.—AFFIDAVIT TO BILL
PRESENTED TO A BOARD OF EDUCATION

STATE OF _____, }
 _____ COUNTY, } ss.

_____, of full age, being duly sworn, on his oath saith that the goods or services itemized in the annexed bill have been delivered or rendered; that no bonus or reward has been given or received by any person or persons, within the knowledge of the deponent, in connection with the same; that the same is correct and true; and that the amount therein stated is justly due and owing as set forth.

Sworn and subscribed before me, }
 this _____ day of _____, 190____ }
 _____ }

APPENDIX XXVI.—CONTRACT FOR BUILDING A SCHOOLHOUSE

Contract made and entered into between A. B., of the County of _____, State of _____, and "The Board of Education of the _____ of _____, in the County of _____," State of _____.

In consideration of the sum of one dollar in hand paid, the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged, and of the further sum of _____ dollars, to be paid as hereinafter specified, the said A. B. agrees to build a frame schoolhouse and to furnish the materials therefor, according to the plans and specifications for the erection of said house hereto appended, at such point in said District as the said Board may designate. The said house is to be built of the best material, in a substantial, workmanlike manner; and is to be completed and delivered to said Board, free from any lien for work done or materials furnished, by the _____ day of _____, 190__; and in case the said house is not finished in the time herein specified, the said A. B. shall forfeit and pay to the said Board, for the use of said District, the sum of _____ dollars, and shall also be liable for all damages that may result in consequence of such failure, and said Board may finish the building and charge the cost of the same to the said A. B.

The said Board hereby agrees to pay the said A. B. the sum of _____ dollars when the foundation of said house is finished, and the further sum of _____ dollars when the building is ready for the roof; and the remaining sum of _____ dollars when the said house is finished and delivered, as herein stipulated.

It is further agreed, that this contract shall not be sublet, transferred, or assigned without the consent of both parties.

Witness our hands this _____ day of _____, 190__

A. B., *Contractor.*

_____, *President.*

_____, *Secretary.*

In building a schoolhouse, it is all-important to secure a plan of the building, with full specifications as to its dimensions, style of architecture, number and size of the windows and doors, quality of materials to be used; what kind of roof; number of coats of paints; of what material the foundation shall be constructed; its depth below, and its height above the surface of the ground; the number and style of chimneys and flues; the provisions for ventilation; the number of coats of plastering, and style of finish, and all other items in detail that may be deemed necessary. The plan and specifications should be attached to the contract, and the whole filed with the district clerk. Before the building is commenced, the contract and specifications should be filed in the office of the county clerk to prevent liens. All plans and specifications must be submitted to the State Board of Education for approval.

(Based on New Jersey form.)

APPENDIX XXVII.—RECORD OF ATTENDANCE

(LEDGER PAGE)

For the month of.....190.....

[illegible]

At-----School, East Orange, N.J.

APPENDIX XXVIII.—FORM OF INQUIRY REGARDING CANDIDATE

-----190

DEAR -----

-----of ----- is a candidate for a teacher's position in the ----- grades of the public schools of this city. I understand that you know something of h__ qualifications for such a position. You will confer a favor, which I shall highly appreciate, if you will kindly give me such of your information as will be of assistance to me in considering the appointment of this candidate.

What has been the character and degree of h__ education? -----

Do you think it sufficient for the position in question? ----- Has he taught under your direction or supervision? ----- When? ----- How long? ----- Did you see much of h__ work? ----- What grade or subject did he teach? ----- How many pupils in h__ class? ----- From your observation do you consider h__ thoroughly successful as a teacher? -----; as a disciplinarian? ----- Is he progressive? ----- Is he strong all round? ----- What is h__ strongest point? -----; weakest? -----

Is he now teaching in your school? ----- If so, why does he wish to leave? ----- Do you desire to retain h__? ----- Is he under contract to remain for any specified time? ----- If so, can he be released? ----- On what notice? -----

If he is not now teaching in your school, why did he leave? -----
----- Was he reappointed? ----- Did you wish to retain h__? -----
----- Would you like to number h__ again among your corps of teachers? -----

Is this candidate's moral character irreproachable? ----- Do you recommend h__ unreservedly? -----

Please give any further information on the other side of this sheet.

Whatever you may write upon this matter will be treated in strict confidence. Thanking you for the favor of an early reply, I am,

Very respectfully yours,

City Superintendent.

*Stamped and addressed
envelope enclosed for reply.*

(Based upon Passaic Form,

F. E. SPAULDING, *Superintendent.*)

APPENDIX XXIX.—TEACHER'S DAILY PLAN

This blank is to be filled out and filed on the desk **BEFORE** beginning the work of the day. State **WHAT** you are to teach, not the number of pages in the book. Note any difficulties that arise, and take the first opportunity to consult the Principal, Supervisor, or Superintendent.

School ----- Grade ----- Section ----- 190

I plan to teach this day what is indicated under the following subjects:—

Reading:

Language:

Spelling:

Arithmetic:

Nature Study: }

Physiology: }

Geography:

History:

Writing:

Music:

Drawing:

-----Teacher.
(Passaic form)

APPENDIX XXX.—POSTAL CARD PUPIL'S
ABSENCE FORM NOTICE

PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF -----

OFFICE OF THE PRINCIPAL:-----SCHOOL

----- 190

----- was absent from school

Please fill out the line below to show whether the absence was with your permission, and after signing, send this card to me by the pupil.

Absence from school, for even a half day, interferes with the progress of the pupil, and should not occur except in cases of sickness. Written excuses are required in all cases of absence.

-----Principal.

This absence ----- with my permission.

Signed -----Parent.

(East Orange form, V. L. DAVEY, Superintendent.)

APPENDIX XXXI.—BLANK FORM FOR PARENTS' CERTIFICATE OF EXCUSE FOR PUPIL'S ABSENCE

TO THE PRINCIPAL OR GRADE TEACHER:

son

Please excuse my daughter.
ward

absence

for tardiness on

pupil's own sickness

sickness in family

important family business

for the reason marked **X**

This excuse is part of the record required by the State Law of

Signed

Parent
Guardian

COMPULSORY EDUCATION

(NEW JERSEY)

LAWS, SESSION OF 1900—ARTICLE XV

154. Every parent, guardian or other person having control of a child between the ages of seven and twelve years, *shall send such child to public day school each day* where such school shall be in session, unless such child shall be excused from such attendance by the board of education of the school district in which such parent or guardian shall reside upon its being shown to the satisfaction of said board that *the bodily or mental condition of such child* is such as to prevent his or her attendance at school, or that *such child is being taught in private school or at home* in such branches as are usually taught in public schools to children of his or her age, or *for other good cause*.

155. No child under the age of fifteen years shall be employed by any person, company or corporation to labor in any business whatever, unless such child shall have attended within twelve months immediately preceding such employment some public or private school. Such attendance shall be for five days or four evenings every week during a period of sixteen weeks, which may be divided into two terms of eight consecutive weeks each, so far as the arrangement of school terms will permit.

156. In case any parent, guardian or other person having control of any child shall fail to comply with the provisions of this article, such parent, guardian or other person shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall, on conviction thereof, be liable to a fine of not less than one dollar nor more than twenty-five dollars for each offense, or to imprisonment for not less than five days nor more than three months, which said fine shall be paid to the custodian of the school moneys of the school district in which the offense shall have occurred for the use of the public schools therein. Such offense shall be prosecuted by the board of education of said school district before a judge of a city or municipal court, police justice, or a justice of the peace, within whose jurisdiction said school district shall be situate.

[BACK OF EXCUSE]

APPENDIX XXXII.—EYE AND EAR RECORDS

SIGHT AND HEARING RECORDS

Name-----Sight and Hearing

EARS		DATE	EYES		DATE	RECORDER
Right	Left		Right	Left		

Details and Miscellaneous Physical Records

Pupil-----

Date-----

Teacher-----

NOTIFICATION CARD

-----190--.

MR.-----

DEAR-----

I have carefully examined your child-----
 eyes and ears and am of the opinion that there is a-----
 defect of vision-hearing. I am therefore required, by direction of the Board of
 Education, to advise you to consult an Eye-Ear Doctor of good reputation, in order
 that your child's progress in education may not be unduly retarded.

Respectfully,

Endorsed by

Supervisor of Physical Training.-----
Principal of School No.-----
Superintendent of Schools.

APPENDIX XXXIII. — TRANSFER CARD

To Principal _____ School No. _____
 _____ is hereby transferred to
 School No. _____ from School No. _____
 _____ last average _____ was _____
 (Date)
 Conduct _____ Last Teacher _____
 Grade here _____ Grade recommended _____
 Remarks _____
 School No. _____ Date _____

Principal.

APPENDIX XXXIV. — REQUISITION FOR SUPPLIES

ORIGINAL No. _____

Date _____ *For School* _____ *Grade* _____

Requisition _____

Signature of Principal _____

Or Signature of Teacher _____

DUPLICATE No. _____

Date _____ *For School* _____ *Grade* _____

Requisition _____

Signature of Principal _____

Or Signature of Teacher _____

APPENDIX XXXV.—APPLICATION FORM FOR CANDIDATE

-----PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Date-----Name-----

Year of birth-----Address-----

Birthplace-----Home address-----

Father's birthplace-----Salary received now-----

Mother's birthplace-----Salary desired-----

No. of children in parents' family-----Height-----Weight-----

Childhood spent in city or town, or on farm-----

Father's present or former profession or occupation-----

High School or Academy attended-----

What course was completed?-----What year?-----

Normal School or College attended-----

What course was completed?-----What year?-----

Post graduate study-----

Professional certificates held-----

Do you believe in educational progress?-----

Travel-----

Music-----Do you sing?-----

Art-----

Manual Training-----

Physical Training-----

Foreign Languages spoken-----

Experience in teaching-----

References, 1.-----

2.-----

3.-----

Kind of position desired-----

Explanatory or additional remarks-----

Photograph-----Interview-----

School visited by-----

When available-----

Return to Superintendent of Schools.

APPENDIX XXXVI.—MONTHLY LESSON AND ATTENDANCE REPORTS OF TEACHERS

-----PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Teacher's

Signature-----Grade-----School-----

No. of days absent-----Month ending-----

Give days and causes.

Substitutes.

Times of arrival and departure from School:

Mon. A.M.-----Tues. A.M.-----Wed. A.M.-----

Mon. P.M.-----Tues. P.M.-----Wed. P.M.-----

Special Note as to Saturday if at School.

Thurs. A.M.-----Fri. A.M.-----

Thurs. P.M.-----Fri. P.M.-----

Mon. A.M.-----Tues. A.M.-----Wed. A.M.-----

Mon. P.M.-----Tues. P.M.-----Wed. P.M.-----

Special Note as to Saturday if at School.

Thurs. A.M.-----Fri. A.M.-----

Thurs. P.M.-----Fri. P.M.-----

Mon. A.M.-----Tues. A.M.-----Wed. A.M.-----

Mon. P.M.-----Tues. P.M.-----Wed. P.M.-----

Special Note as to Saturday if at School.

Thurs. A.M.-----Fri. A.M.-----

Thurs. P.M.-----Fri. P.M.-----

Mon. A.M.-----Tues. A.M.-----Wed. A.M.-----

Mon. P.M.-----Tues. P.M.-----Wed. P.M.-----

Special Note as to Saturday if at School.

Thurs. A.M.-----Fri. A.M.-----

Thurs. P.M.-----Fri. P.M.-----

Educational meetings attended during the month:

Educational books or periodicals read during month:

Criticisms or suggestions regarding meetings or books:

Record here the PAGES assigned in the various text-books, TOPICS of importance treated during the month, any educational matters deserving notice, and any OPINIONS you may wish to refer to the Superintendent of Schools.

Do not write on the back or within one inch of the left edge. Use a second sheet if necessary, but not more than two sheets.

Comments by Principal:

Principal's signature:-----

This report should reach the Superintendent from the Principal, every fourth Monday by
3 P.M.

[This is to be printed upon one side of a wide sheet of paper].

APPENDIX XXXVII.—SEMI-ANNUAL RATING FORM OF TEACHERS

Date-----

Name ----- School No.----- Grade-----

Teacher Principal Supervisor Specialist Subjects-----

Certificate held-----

Date of Appointment----- Salary this date-----

Graduate-----

Marks: A, admirable. E, excellent. V. G., very good. G, good. F, fair. T, tolerable. P, poor. V. P., very poor. C, complete failure. O, no preparation whatever. H, highly commendable. S, satisfactory. D, deficient. I, improving.

V. G. is the highest mark given until the fourth half year here, and G. the highest until the second. X, no opinion. Z, opinion unnecessary.

Instructing-----

Methods ----- Voice -----

Questioning ----- Manner -----

Blackboard ----- Handwriting -----

Results ----- Fitness in scholarship for position -----

Controlling-----

Self-control ----- Willingness to receive suggestions -----

Class control ----- Ability to carry out suggestions -----

Methods ----- Ability to see what is going on -----

Educating-----

Tact ----- Scientific knowledge of children -----

Executive qualities ----- General scholarship and culture -----

Disposition and character ----- Apparent native ability -----

Special strength-----

Special weakness-----

Specialties:

Music----- Drawing----- Physical Culture-----

Remarks:

Total rating-----

Signed-----

Position-----

Every rating is with reference exclusively to the position now held. A duplicate is to be kept on file. The original may or may not be seen by the teacher at his option.

ILLUSTRATION: Manner, F, I, means fair but improving.

APPENDIX XXXVIII. — ORDER ON CUSTODIAN OF SCHOOL MONEYS FOR TEACHERS' SALARIES

No.-----, N.J.,-----, 190--

To-----, Custodian of School Moneys of the School District of-----

County of-----, State of New Jersey:

Pay to the order of -----, Teacher, -----dollars, being the amount of salary due for teaching in Public School No.-----, of said School District of-----, from-----, 190-- to-----, 190--.

\$-----, -----, *President* } Board of Education of the
-----, *Secretary* } School District of-----

I hereby certify that the Teacher in whose favor this order is drawn, is in possession of a Teacher's Certificate, in full force and effect, and has properly kept the School Register, as required by law, and that I have certified thereto in said Register.

-----*Secretary.*

APPENDIX XXXIX. — FORM OF NOTE FOR MONEY BORROWED

-----, N.J., -----, 190--

-----days after date, "The Board of Education of the-----of-----, in the County of-----," State of New Jersey, promises to pay to-----, or order, -----dollars, with interest from the date thereof, at the rate of-----per cent per annum.

This note is given for money borrowed by said Board for the purpose of-----, pursuant to the statute entitled "An act to establish a system of public instruction," approved March 26th, 1902, and by the consent of the inhabitants of the said district lawfully given, at a meeting lawfully held on-----, 190--

-----*President.*

Attest:

-----*District Clerk.*

APPENDIX XL.—CERTIFICATE THAT CHILD HAS ATTENDED SCHOOL

I hereby certify that I am Principal of School No. -----, in the ----- of -----, [*city, town, county*] of -----, and that [*name of child*] is the [*son, daughter, or ward*] of [*name of parent or guardian*], residing at [*street and city*]; that to the best of knowledge and belief, said [*name of child*] is ----- years of age; and said [*name of child*] has attended school under my charge, five days a week, for -----weeks, during the year preceding the date of this certificate.

Dated -----, 190--

APPENDIX XLI.—REGISTRATION CARDS

----- PUBLIC EVENING SCHOOL

(ADMISSION CARD FOR THE STUDENT)

Name-----
Address-----
Age----- Date of entry-----
Studies----- Rooms-----

----- PUBLIC EVENING SCHOOL

(FOR THE TEACHER)

Name-----
Address-----
Age----- Date of entry-----
Studies----- Rooms-----
Grades-----
Remarks-----

Attended school { day-----
 evening-----

APPENDIX XLII.—PUPIL'S RECORD

Name

(INDEX CARD FOR FILING)

Father's name, if living	Occupation
Mother's name, if living	No. of children in family
Residence	Residence
Date of first entrance	Date of leaving school
Date of birth	Place of birth
Initials of teachers who have had charge of pupil, with dates and grades	
Same	
Same	
Consult records as indicated	

APPENDIX XLIII.—RECORD OF BOOKS

(INDEX CARD)

Name of book		Total number	
Author's name		Left in school	
TEACHER	NUMBER	TEACHER	NUMBER

APPENDIX XLIV.—TEACHER'S RECORD FORM

(INDEX CARD)

Name	School
<hr/>	
Date of appointment	Grade
<hr/>	
Education with dates	
<hr/>	
Same	
<hr/>	
Experience elsewhere	
<hr/>	
Experience here	
<hr/>	
<hr/>	

APPENDIX XLV.—PUPIL'S PINK (OR BLUE) MIS-
CONDUCT AND SPECIAL REPORT FORM

(INDEX CARD)

Name
<hr/>
Special reports
<hr/>
<hr/>
<hr/>
<hr/>

It is suggested that forms be given teachers, to be filled out for sending disorderly pupils to the office of the principal or, where there is no principal, to the superintendent. The written record may be valuable later, even if not necessary at the time.

APPENDIX XLVI.—ORDER FORMS

ORDER I. ORIGINAL

Form B. No.-----190--

To-----

Please send to-----

By-----

--	--	--

-----Supt.

Deliver the above articles as requested, and charge to the School Department, City of-----, observing the following

RULES

1. Deliver all articles free of transportation charges.
2. Attach Order II to the bill.
3. Send bill to Secretary, Board of Education.

-----Chairman, Committee on Supplies.

Date-----

ORDER II. DUPLICATE. RETURN WITH BILL

Form B. No.-----190--

To-----

Please send to-----

By-----

--	--	--

-----Supt.

Deliver the above articles as requested, and charge to the School Department, City of-----, observing the following

RULES

1. Deliver all articles free of transportation charges.
2. Attach Order II to the bill.
3. Send bill to Secretary, Board of Education.

-----Chairman, Committee on Supplies.

Date-----

TRIPLICATE

Form B. No.-----190-----							
To-----							
Please send to-----							
By-----							
Bill received.							
School-----							
Account-----							

(Based on form used in Holyoke, Mass.)

APPENDIX XLVII

POSTAL CARD FORM OF ATTENDANCE AND SERVICE
OF SUBSTITUTE TEACHER

Date-----

Superintendent-----

DEAR SIR: —

I have taught to-day the class of-----grade-----

school-----

Very truly yours,

Certified by-----

Principal school-----

(To be mailed at close of afternoon session.)

APPENDIX XLVIII. — THE LONG VACATION

MANY a school superintendent traces defeats more or less serious to absence from the city when board or committee meetings have been held. The safe rule is, **INVARIABLY ATTEND BOARD AND COMMITTEE MEETINGS**, *regular or special, both in the school year and in vacation*. A conclusion is, *Take vacations at opportune times and never for long at a time*. The man who must have two months' solid vacation every summer is physically unfitted for the superintendency. Another conclusion is, *Never get into a condition to need a long vacation*. It is best frequently to take a few days' rest while the schools are in session so as to be fully ready for every heavy task. To one already somewhat weary, any unusual labor results in over-fatigue. In the summer, most men of the nervous vigor required in a school superintendent get more real rest and recreation in a stay of two weeks in a remote place entirely out of the reach of the mail, the telegraph, and the telephone, than in two months out of town but attending to correspondence. Yet I have known many a man to trace his final overthrow to one such absence, when the laymen fell to "talking him over."

Engaging in business employments in the vacation destroys the public illusion that the school superintendent is a professional man. Educationally and physically, the best vacation is found in a variety of physical and intellectual employments without direct financial or professional returns. In most communities, a competent superintendent has enough work to do to be kept busy a part of every day for two-thirds of the long vacation. The summer school for the children of the city has recently returned, bringing a new, though not exacting, interest.

A school superintendent would, of course, do well every three or four years to attend a regular course for teachers. So he would do well to have a sabbatical year of rest. But the rule for all superintendents is: Once out of the treadmill, out forever. The vacation school for instruction and conference is a very valuable influence in American education. While the teachers' institute for the stimulation of persons who, in general, are essentially unfit for their positions is a confession of the farcical nature of much so-called education, the professional summer school, conducted by experts for serious practitioners and students of education, is an institution worthy of an occupation that is slowly but surely coming to rank with the "learned professions."

APPENDIX XLIX. — RELATION WITH THE
PAROCHIAL SCHOOL

THE public school has a universal mission. Because it must be undenominational and non-sectarian, it is held by some to be ineligible. While the ideal method might be for the State to grant subsidies to all schools whose teachers possess legal certificates of attainments, whose courses of study are approved and regularly supervised by State educational officers, and whose attendance of pupils is systematically registered, at present all persons who believe that religion is the true and only foundation of education must be content with maintaining, between the public and all parochial schools, relations at once amicable and equitable. In particular, pupils coming from parochial or other schools of a primarily religious character should be taken at the face value of their transfer records. For at least a year afterwards they should be tested solely with reference to their power to maintain their class standing, and not in the least with reference to their demonstrable attainments. This is a sound general principle of education, — Can the pupil do the work? If there is any reasonable hope that he can, he should be tried until the contrary is proven.

In this connection, it may be said that, while irreproachable morals are the *sine qua non* of professional fitness in the teacher, religious faith and denominational connections should never be considered in the question of the employment of a teacher in any public school.

APPENDIX L. — LISTING AND PURCHASE OF
TEXT-BOOKS AND SUPPLIES

1. The quality of all articles supplied should equal that of the sample upon which the order was based.

2. A count of pages should be made of all notebooks and stationery pads unless purchased by weight. In the latter case, this should be verified, when possible.

3. Irrespective of the number of articles, whether large or small, an accurate count should always be made.

4. In opening packages of miscellaneous supplies, articles should be immediately checked off upon the bill.

5. In all bids, note whether expressage (or freightage) be included.
6. Make all claims for errors immediately.
7. In discussing text-books, consider (*a*) quality of the text; (*b*) number of pages of printed matter; (*c*) number and quality of illustrations; (*d*) quality of binding; (*e*) date of writing or of last revision; (*f*) success elsewhere.
8. In small school systems, it is usually better to base the syllabus of the course of study upon a satisfactory text-book rather than to try to find a text-book that fits the course.
9. Never make a change in a text-book unless the reasons for it are sufficient to convince both the local educators and intelligent laymen that the new text proposed is considerably better than the old.
10. It is a suspicious circumstance when all purchases are made of but a few concerns; also, when the heavy accounts are with the smaller competitive concerns; also, when publicity in all financial matters is not customary.
11. All bids should be opened and all bills ordered paid in "open meetings" of the board.
12. All honest men desire to have their accounts inquired into and systematically audited.
13. Poor teachers need good text-books and supplies, good teachers demand them.
14. The personal quality of the agent may help a sale but cannot assist the success of book or apparatus in actual classroom use.
15. The responsible and permanent business house has these claims for preference; namely, that errors are cheerfully rectified, that small additional supplies of the same standard can be bought from year to year, that accounts may be carried in seasons of emergency for considerable periods; and that their methods are honorable, as their duration and success testify.

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Prepared by SAMUEL H. DODSON, PD. M., Instructor in history, Bloomfield High School and lecturer in history, New York Board of Education free lectures.

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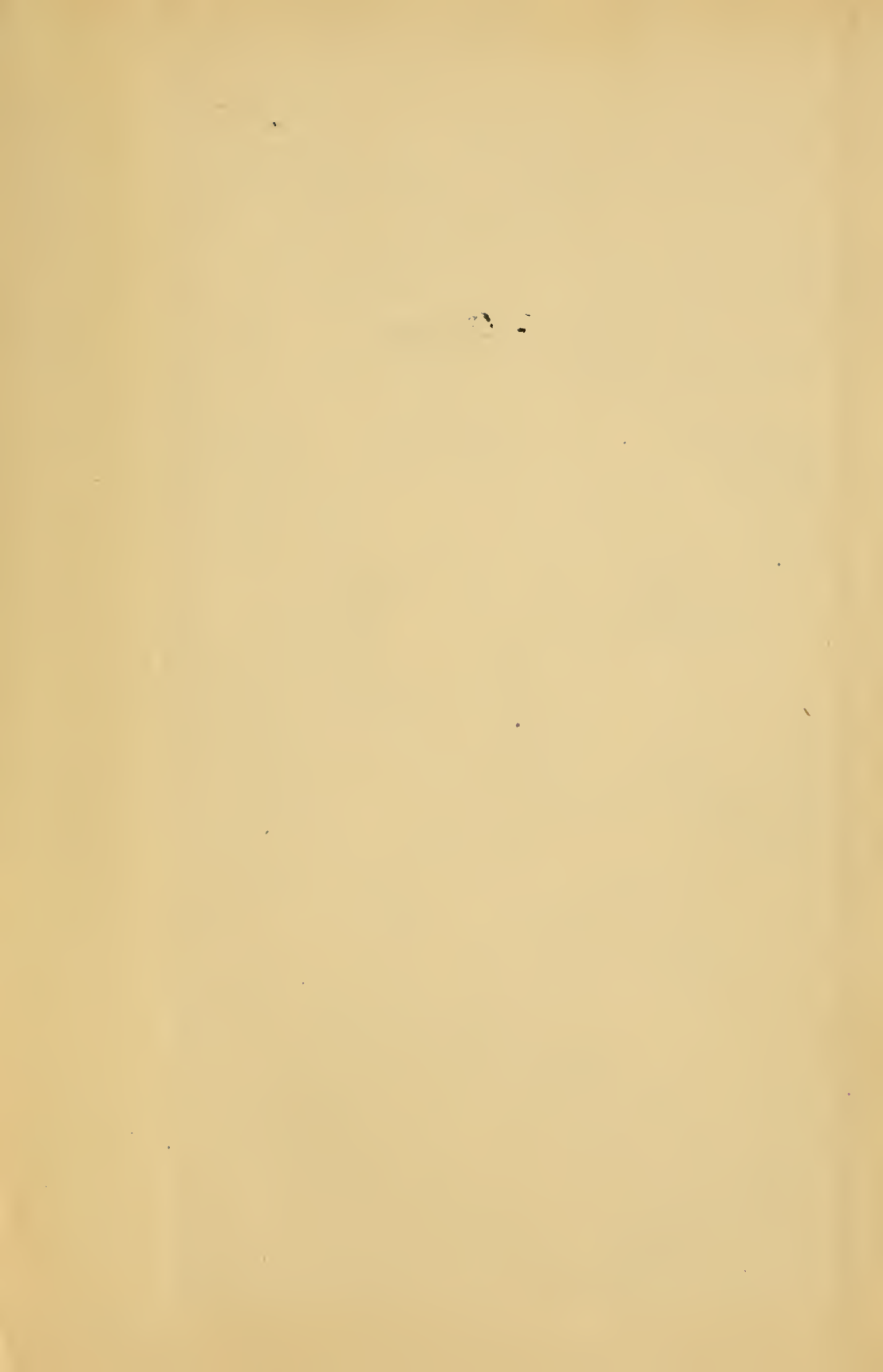
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